

REPORT
OF THE
PROCEEDINGS OF THE THIRTY-SECOND
MEETING OF THE CONVENTION
OF
AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS
OF THE DEAF

MISSOURI SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF
FULTON, MISSOURI
JUNE 23 TO 27, 1941



AUGUST 10, 1942.—Referred to the Committee on Printing

UNITED STATES
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
WASHINGTON : 1942

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SUBMITTED BY MR. HAYDEN

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES,
September 13, 1942.

Ordered, That the report of the proceedings of the thirty-second meeting of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, held at Fulton, Mo., June 23 to 27, 1941, be printed with illustrations as a Senate document.

Attest:

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read "Philip Halsey". The signature is written in a cursive style with a large, looping initial "P".

Secretary.

372.923.

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

COLUMBIA INSTITUTION FOR THE DEAF,
Washington, D. C., August 10, 1942.

To the Congress of the United States:

In accordance with the act of incorporation of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, approved January 26, 1897, I have the honor to submit the proceedings of the thirty-second meeting of the convention, held at Fulton, Mo., June 23-27, inclusive, 1941.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant.

PERCIVAL HALL, *President.*

HON. HENRY A. WALLACE,
President of the Senate.

HON. SAM RAYBURN,
Speaker of the House.

LETTER OF SUBMITTAL

GOODING, IDAHO, August 1, 1942.

PERCIVAL HALL, Litt. D., L. H. D.,
President, Columbia Institution for the Deaf,
Washington, D. C.

DEAR SIR: In accordance with section 4 of the act of incorporation of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, approved January 26, 1897, a report is to be made to Congress, through the president of the Columbia Institution for the Deaf at Washington, D. C., of "such portions of its proceedings and transactions as its officers shall deem to be of general public interest and value concerning the education of the deaf."

In agreement with the above request, I have the honor to submit herewith a comprehensive report, containing such papers and addresses as may be of special interest or of historic value, all of which were presented at the thirty-second meeting, held at the Missouri School for the Deaf, Fulton, Mo., June 23-27, 1941, inclusive.

May I respectfully request that this report be laid before the Congress?

Very truly yours,

BURTON W. DRIGGS,
Secretary, Convention of American
Instructors of the Deaf.

ACT OF INCORPORATION

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That Edward M. Gallaudet, of Washington, in the District of Columbia; Francis D. Clarke, of Flint, in the State of Michigan; S. Tefft Walker, of Jacksonville, in the State of Illinois; James L. Smith, of Faribault, in the State of Minnesota; Sarah Fuller, of Boston, in the State of Massachusetts; David C. Dudley, of Colorado Springs, in the State of Colorado; and John R. Dobyns, of Jackson, in the State of Mississippi, officers and members of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, and their associates and successors, be, and they are hereby, incorporated and made a body politic and corporate in the District of Columbia, by the name of the "Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf," for the promotion of the education of the deaf on the broadest, most advanced, and practical lines, and by that name it may sue, plead, and be impleaded, in any court of law or equity, and may use and have a common seal and change the same at pleasure.

SEC. 2. That the said corporation shall have the power to take and hold personal estate and such real estate as shall be necessary and proper for the promotion of the educational and benevolent purposes of said corporation, which shall not be divided among the members of the corporation, but shall descend to their successors for the promotion of the objects aforesaid.

SEC. 3. That said corporation shall have a constitution and regulations or bylaws and shall have the power to amend the same at pleasure: *Provided*, That such constitution and regulations or bylaws do not conflict with the laws of the United States or of any State.

SEC. 4. That said association may hold its meetings in such places as said incorporators shall determine and shall report to Congress, through the president of the Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb at Washington, D. C., such portions of its proceedings and transactions as its officers shall deem to be of general public interest and value concerning the education of the deaf.

Approved, January 26, 1897.

MEETINGS OF THE CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF

- First—New York, N. Y., August 28-30, 1850.
- Second—Hartford, Conn., August 27-29, 1851.
- Third—Columbus, Ohio, August 10-12, 1853.
- Fourth—Staunton, Va., August 13-15, 1856.
- Fifth—Jacksonville, Ill., August 10-12, 1858.
- Sixth—Washington, D. C., May 12-16, 1868. (Also called the "First Conference of Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf.")
- Seventh—Indianapolis, Ind., August 24-26, 1870.
- Eighth—Belleville, Ontario, July 15-20, 1874.
- Ninth—Columbus, Ohio, August 17-22, 1878.
- Tenth—Jacksonville, Ill., August 26-30, 1882.
- Eleventh—Berkeley, Calif., July 15-23, 1886.
- Twelfth—New York, N. Y., August 23-27, 1890.
- Thirteenth—Chicago, Ill., July 17, 19, 21, 24, 1893.
- Fourteenth—Flint, Mich., July 2-8, 1895.
- Fifteenth—Columbus, Ohio, July 28-August 2, 1898.
- Sixteenth—Buffalo, N. Y., July 2-8, 1901.
- Seventeenth—Morganton, N. C., July 8-13, 1905.
- Eighteenth—Ogden, Utah, July 4-10, 1908.
- Nineteenth—Delavan, Wis., July 6-13, 1911.
- Twentieth—Staunton, Va., June 25-July 3, 1914.
- Twenty-first—Hartford, Conn., June 29-July 3, 1917.
- Twenty-second—Mount Airy, Pa., June 28-July 3, 1920.
- Twenty-third—Belleville, Ontario, June 25-30, 1923.
- Twenty-fourth—Council Bluffs, Iowa, June 29-July 4, 1925.
- Twenty-fifth—Columbus, Ohio, June 27-July 1, 1927.
- Twenty-sixth—Faribault, Minn., June 17-21, 1929.
- Twenty-seventh—Winnipeg, Manitoba, June 22-26, 1931.
- Twenty-eighth—West Trenton, N. J., June 18-23, 1933.
- Twenty-ninth—Jacksonville, Ill., June 17-21, 1935.
- Thirtieth—New York, N. Y., June 20-25, 1937.
- Thirty-first—Berkeley, Calif., June 18-23, 1939.
- Thirty-second—Fulton, Mo., June 23-27, 1941.

LIST OF PRESIDENTS

- | | |
|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Christopher Morgan. 2. Thomas Day, Connecticut. 3. John W. Andrews, Ohio. 4. James H. Skinner, Virginia. 5. Rev. J. M. Sturtevant. 6. Harvey P. Peet, New York. 7. Rev. Collins Stone, Connecticut. 8. W. W. Turner, Connecticut. 9. Rev. Dr. A. L. Chapin. 10. Edward Miner Gallaudet, District of Columbia. 11. Philip G. Gillett, Illinois. 12. Warring Wilkinson, California. 13. Philip G. Gillett, Illinois. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 14. Wesley O. Connor, Georgia. 15-20. Edward Miner Gallaudet, District of Columbia. 21-23. Percival Hall, District of Columbia. 24. Newton F. Walker, South Carolina. 25. John W. Jones, Ohio. 26. Frank M. Driggs, Utah. 27. Elbert A. Gruver, Pennsylvania. 28. Thomas S. McAloney, Colorado. 29. Alvin E. Pope, New Jersey. 30. Harris Taylor, New York. 31. Ignatius Bjorlee, Maryland. 32. Elwood A. Stevenson, California. |
|---|---|

**OFFICERS OF THE CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE
DEAF (1941-43), STANDING EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, AND OTHER
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OFFICERS

President.—Clarence J. Settles, Ph. D., president, Florida School for the Deaf and the Blind, St. Augustine, Fla.

First vice president.—Leonard M. Elstad, M. A., superintendent, Minnesota School for the Deaf, Faribault, Minn.

Second vice president.—Jennie M. Henderson, B. S., principal, Horace Mann School for the Deaf, Roxbury, Mass.

Secretary.—Burton W. Driggs, M. A., superintendent, Idaho School for the Deaf and Blind, Gooding, Idaho.

Treasurer.—Odie W. Underhill, M. A., North Carolina School for the Deaf, Morganton, N. C.

DIRECTORS

[The directors, with the officers, form the standing executive committee]

Truman L. Ingle, superintendent, Missouri School for the Deaf, Fulton, Mo.

*Edith M. Nelson, M. A., Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.

Carl E. Rankin, Ph. D., superintendent, North Carolina School for the Deaf, Morganton, N. C.

Harley D. Drake, M. S., Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.

SECTION COMMITTEE LEADERS

Supervision.—Richard G. Brill, Virginia School, Staunton, Va.

Preschool and kindergarten.—Virginia Rosser, Gough School, San Francisco, Calif.

Speech development.—Ruth V. Jeffrey, Lexington School, New York, N. Y.

Aural training and rhythm.—Elizabeth H. Johnson, Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.

Vocational training.—Arthur G. Norris, Missouri School, Fulton, Mo.

Health and physical education.—Jacob Caskey, Indiana School, Indianapolis, Ind.

Curriculum content (including social and character training).—John A. Gough, Oklahoma School, Sulphur, Okla.

Art.—William H. Grow, Florida School, St. Augustine, Fla.

Publication.—Tobias Brill, New Jersey School, West Trenton, N. J.

OFFICERS OF THE CONVENTION, 1939-41

President.—Elwood A. Stevenson, M. A., principal, California School for the Deaf, Berkeley, Calif.

First vice president.—Clarence J. Settles, Ph. D., president, Florida School for the Deaf and the Blind, St. Augustine, Fla.

Second vice president.—Elizabeth Peet, D. Ped., Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.

Secretary.—Burton W. Driggs, M. A., superintendent, Idaho School for the Deaf and Blind, Gooding, Idaho.

Treasurer.—Odie W. Underhill, M. A., North Carolina School for the Deaf, Morganton, N. C.

* Deceased.

DIRECTORS

[The directors, with the officers, form the standing executive committee]

Ignatius Bjorlee, LL. D., superintendent, Maryland State School for the Deaf, Frederick, Md.

Josephine F. Quinn, principal, Minnesota School for the Deaf, Faribault, Minn.
Charles E. MacDonald, B. D., principal, British Columbia School for the Deaf and Blind, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada.

MEMBERS OF THE CONVENTION

MEMBERSHIP LIST

LIFE MEMBER

Humbert, Mrs. L. A., Gary, S. Dak.

MEMBERS

- Abbott, Mrs. Carrie Lou, Austin, Tex.
Abernathy, E. R., superintendent, Columbus, Ohio.
Abernathy, Sarah H., Beverly, Mass.
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Acuff, Lutie G., Knoxville, Tenn.
Adams, Mrs. Catharine D., Green Bay, Wis.
Adams, P. H., Austin, Tex.
Adcock, Hal, Little Rock, Ark.
Adcock, Mary Nell, Little Rock, Ark.
• Affut, Elizabeth, Indianapolis, Ind.
Alber, Melda, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
Alcott, Mrs. Charles, Talladega, Ala.
Aldrup, Mrs. Frances E., Omaha, Nebr.
Alexander, Iva, Morganton, N. C.
Alexander, Mrs. Jennie L., Morganton, N. C.
Alexander, John W., Morganton, N. C.
Alexander, Mrs. R. W., Fulton, Mo.
Alice, Sister Rose, Buffalo, N. Y.
Allen, Mrs. Alice B., Talladega, Ala.
Allen, Dena, Fulton, Mo.
Allen, Faye C., Faribault, Minn.
Allen, Virginia, Austin, Tex.
Allie, Margaret H., Flint, Mich.
Allman, Mrs. J. J., Austin, Tex.
Almsted, Mrs. J. Y., St. Louis, Mo.
Aloia, Michael, White Plains, N. Y.
Amata, Sister Mary, Marrero, La.
Amberg, Howard, Overlea, Md.
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Anderson, Martin, Austin, Tex.
Anderson, Olga, Devils Lake, N. Dak.
Anderson, Tom B., Cedar Spring, S. C.
Anderson, Tom L., Council Bluffs, Iowa.
Andrews, Alice, Romney, W. Va.
Andrews, Mrs. Alice, Omaha, Nebr.
Anita, Sister Rose, Buffalo, N. Y.
Antonio, Sister Rose, University City, Mo.
Arbaugh, Laura, St. Louis, Mo.
Archer, T. V., Jacksonville, Ill.
Armstrong, E. P., Fulton, Mo.
Armstrong, Laura, Tucson, Ariz.
Arnold, Allie, Colorado Springs, Colo.
Arnold, Susan B., Romney, W. Va.
Asbury, Emily J., Talladega, Ala.
Atkinson, Dolores, Columbus, Ohio.
Avery, Elizabeth B., Morganton, N. C.
Avondino, Josephine, Chicago, Ill.
Babcock, Louise G., Frederick, Md.
Bach, Mary, Knoxville, Tenn.
Backall, Zelma, Overlea, Md.
Backstrom, Lewis A., Faribault, Minn.
Bailey, Alice M., Northampton, Mass.
Bailey, Ruth, Jacksonville, Ill.
Baker, Ruth S., Romney, W. Va.
Balasa, Joseph J., Danville, Ky.
Baldwin, Dorothy D., Northampton, Mass.
Ballard, C. E., Austin, Tex.
Ballard, Lillian, Youngstown, Ohio.
Ballou, Winifred A., Staunton, Va.
Bane, John R., Jackson, Miss.
Barden, Archer P., Talladega, Ala.
Barnes, Genevieve H., Jacksonville, Ill.
Barnes, Harvey B., Jacksonville, Ill.
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Barron, Mary Grey, West Hartford, Conn.
Bartley, George, Fulton, Mo.
Bass, Mrs. Mary, Staunton, Va.
Bass, R. A., Staunton, Va.
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Baughman, Virginia, West Hartford, Conn.
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Baysinger, Orville E., Fulton, Mo.
Beard, F. A., Baton Rouge, La.
Beauchamp, James B., Danville, Ky.

- Becker, Valentine A., Delavan, Wis.
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 Bell, Mrs. Fannie, Little Rock, Ark.
 Bender, Ruth E., Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Bennett, Josephine, New York, N. Y.
 Bennett, Mrs. Mildred, Omaha, Nebr.
 Benschoten, Irene Van, Kansas City, Mo.
 Bensing, Elsie O., White Plains, N. Y.
 Benson, Harry G., Frederick, Md.
 Benson, Mary A., Frederick, Md.
 Berg, Lloyd E., Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Berkeley, Anne B., Rome, N. Y.
 Berquist, Mrs. Anna T., Fulton, Mo.
 Berry, Amelia E., White Plains, N. Y.
 Bertolip, Floyd, Northampton, Mass.
 Bessusparis, John A., Philadelphia, Pa.
 Best, Dorothy, Delavan, Wis.
 Billings, Mrs. G. M., Morganton, N. C.
 Binkley, Robert, Baton Rouge, La.
 Bionde, Alexander, Berkeley, Calif.
 Birk, Vernon S., Berkeley, Calif.
 Birk, Mrs. Vernon S., Berkeley, Calif.
 Bishop, June, Olathe, Kans.
 Bjorlee, Ignatius, Frederick, Md.
 Black, Dorothy, West Trenton, N. J.
 Black, Mrs. Louise C., Staunton, Va.
 Black, Natalie L., Berkeley, Calif.
 *Blankenship, Mrs. Ota, Omaha, Nebr.
 Blattl, Ida, Sulphur, Okla.
 Blattner, Elizabeth, Austin, Tex.
 Bledsoe, John F., Overlea, Md.
 Blocker, Ada, Austin, Tex.
 Boatner, Edmund B., West Hartford, Conn.
 Boatwright, John T., Faribault, Minn.
 Bodycomb, Margaret, Philadelphia, Pa.
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 Bossi, Edna I., Delavan, Wis.
 Bouchard, Mrs. Eunice W., West Hartford, Conn.
 Bouchard, Evadna B., Rochester, N. Y.
 Bouchard, Joseph W., West Hartford, Conn.
 Bouteiller, Mrs. Lucy, West Hartford, Conn.
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 Brill, Tobias, West Trenton, N. J.
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 Burns, William, Austin, Tex.
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 Burton, Jane Offut, Romney, W. Va.
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 Calligiuri, F. Alfred, St. Augustine, Fla.
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 Cantey, Julia, Baton Rouge, La.
 Caple, J. L., Little Rock, Ark.
 Capron, Lillian, Austin, Tex.
 Carr, Josephine, Sulphur, Okla.
 Carr, Margaret T., Olathe, Kans.
 Carver, Laone D., Faribault, Minn.
 Casey, Katherine, Cave Spring, Ga.
 Caskey, Jacob, Indianapolis, Ind.
 Cason, Mary D., Frederick, Md.
 Caughey, Dale W., Rome, N. Y.
 Caziarc, Donald R., Philadelphia, Pa.
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 Cheek, Mrs. Wilhelmina, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Chrisman, James, Sioux Falls, S. Dak.
 Christian, Harvey T., Omaha, Nebr.
 Christian, Susan, Indianapolis, Ind.
 Christoffersen, Hazel E., Omaha, Nebr.
 Church, Mrs. Lillian L., Romney, W. Va.
 Clark, Barton, Cave Spring, Ga.
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- Clayton, F. Arthur, Omaha, Nebr.
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 Cobb, Regina, Knoxville, Tenn.
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 N. C.
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 Rochester, N. Y.
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 Canada.
 Coon, Margaret, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Cooper, Lucile, Chicago, Ill.
 Cooper, Mrs. May B., Berkeley, Calif.
 Copeland, Pauline B., Knoxville, Tenn.
 Corban, Eugenia, Baton Rouge, La.
 Coretti, Marie, Overlea, Md.
 Coriale, Rose, Devils Lake, N. Dak.
 Cornell, Louise E., White Plains, N. Y.
 Corrington, Lucille, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Corrington, Marguerite, Jacksonville,
 Ill.
 Corwin, Mrs. Louise, Fulton, Mo.
 Cosgriff, Ruth, Wausau, Wis.
 Cota, Agnes, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Courrege, Mrs. A. S., Baton Rouge, La.
 Covey, Mrs. Grace W., Baton Rouge, La.
 Cox, Mrs. Edna, Little Rock, Ark.
 Craig, Annie V., Washington, D. C.
 Craig, Sam B., Washington, D. C.
 Crammatte, Alan B., White Plains,
 N. Y.
 Crampton, Alice L., West Trenton,
 N. J.
 Crampton, Mildred, Jersey City, N. J.
 Cranwill, Alfred, Flint, Mich.
 Creath, Jeanette, Austin, Tex.
 Crews, Sarah, Fulton, Mo.
 Crockett, Claire, Austin, Tex.
 Crosby, Anita P., Cedar Spring, S. C.
 Crosby, Mrs. Laura L., Delavan, Wis.
 Crouter, John Yale, Providence, R. I.
 Crow, Arthur, Little Rock, Ark.
 Cuddy, Nelle M., Romney, W. Va.
 Culbertson, Mrs. Marjorie F., Staunton,
 Va.
 Cunningham, Alice, Omaha, Nebr.
 Cunningham, Mrs. Josie, Danville, Ky.
 Curtis, E. Ivan, Sioux Falls, S. Dak.
 Curtis, Marie, Baton Rouge, La.
 Curtiss, Louise A., Olathe, Kans.
 Cutsail, Horace, Frederick, Md.
 Danner, Mrs. Irene, Sulphur, Okla.
 Davenport, Mrs. Virginia H., Sulphur,
 Okla.
 Davies, George H., Sulphur, Okla.
 Davies, Mrs. Rachel Dawes, St. Louis,
 Mo.
 Davis, Mrs. Francis E., Morganton,
 N. C.
 Davis, H. Amanda, Haynes, Ark.
 Davis, Robert L., Austin, Tex.
 Davis, William H., Austin, Tex.
 Davis, Mrs. William M., Austin, Tex.
 De Arman, Louise, Little Rock, Ark.
 De Arman, Mildred, Little Rock, Ark.
 De Armond, Jennie Gray, Knoxville,
 Tenn.
 Dedrick, Mrs. Ruth, West Hartford,
 Conn.
 Deem, Hattie L., St. Louis, Mo.
 De Motte, Amelia, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Denison, Charlotte E., Northampton,
 Mass.
 Dennis, Elizabeth H., Wichita, Kans.
 Dermody, Charles F., West Hartford,
 Conn.
 De Smet, Mrs. Elizabeth, West Trenton,
 N. J.
 De Witt, Elizabeth, Romney, W. Va.
 Dey, James A., St. Augustine, Fla.
 Dial, Helen, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Dietrich, Rose I., Flint, Mass.
 Dinkle, L. G., Romney, W. Va.
 Dissinger, Eunice, Columbus, Ohio.
 Dobson, Mary, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Doctor, Frank, Olathe, Kans.
 Doctor, Powrie V., Washington, D. C.
 Doerfler, Lee, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Dold, J. J., Olathe, Kans.
 Doneghy, Susan, Danville, Ky.
 Dowd, Mrs. Florence McElver, Roch-
 ester, N. Y.
 Downer, C. W., Saskatoon, Canada.
 Doyle, F. W., Oakland, Calif.
 Dozier, Justin P., White Plains, N. Y.
 Drake, Mrs. Gladys, Austin, Tex.
 Drake, H. D., Washington, D. C.
 Drake, Race Fred, Cave Spring, Ga.
 Driggs, Burton W., Gooding, Idaho.
 Duffy, Dene, Gooding, Idaho.
 Duick, Charles D., Indianapolis, Ind.
 Duke, J. Horace, Morganton, N. C.
 Dunbar, Evelina, West Hartford, Conn.
 Dunlap, Elizabeth, Rochester, N. Y.
 Dunlap, Louise Caps, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Dunlap, S. Cornelia, Council Bluffs,
 Iowa.
 Dunn, Gene, Indianapolis, Ind.
 Dunn, I. S., Jacksonville, Ill.
 Dunn, Ruth, Austin, Tex.
 Durgan, Mildred, Faribault, Minn.
 Durian, Walter G., West Hartford,
 Conn.
 Dziadula, Stephanie, Columbus, Ohio.
 Eads, Francis, Little Rock, Ark.
 Eastman, Mrs. O. L., Austin, Tex.
 Eaves, Mrs. Ethel, Austin, Tex.

- Edmunds, H. C., Knoxville, Tenn.
 Eibeck, Irma, Romney, W. Va.
 Elliot, A. Edwina, Rochester, N. Y.
 Elliot, Mrs. Ida Donald, Colorado Springs, Colo.
 Elliot, Sarah L., Rochester, N. Y.
 Ellis, Mrs. Dorothy Graves, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Ellis, Evan, Romney, W. Va.
 Elmer, L. A., Knoxville, Tenn.
 Elstad, Leonard M., Faribault, Minn.
 Elting, Julia T., Frederick, Md.
 Ely, Mildred S., West Hartford, Conn.
 Evans, Mrs. Arthur, Olathe, Kans.
 Evans, Mrs. D. F., Cave Spring, Ga.
 Evans, Mrs. E. C., Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Everhard, Mrs. Hilda, Austin, Tex.
 Fair, William L., Olathe, Kans.
 Falk, Charles J., Omaha, Nebr.
 Farquhar, G. C., Fulton, Mo.
 Farrar, Agnes R., West Trenton, N. J.
 Faupel, George H., Frederick, Md.
 Fay, Helen B., Washington, D. C.
 Feldman, Albert, New York, N. Y.
 Fenney, Mary, Berkeley, Calif.
 Fernsler, Bebe, Lansing, Mich.
 Ferguson, Emma, Baton Rouge, La.
 Ficklin, Virginia, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Fields, Ruth, Baton Rouge, La.
 Fink, Thirza, Faribault, Minn.
 Finn, Betsy A., Providence, R. I.
 Finney, Forrest E., Staunton, Va.
 Finney, Gladys, Fulton, Mo.
 Fisher, Irvin A., Olathe, Kans.
 Fisk, Marceline, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Fitzpatrick, Margaret, Indianapolis, Ind.
 Fleitz, Laura M., St. Augustine, Fla.
 Fleming, Mrs. George, Danville, Ky.
 Fleming, Robert, Sulphur, Okla.
 Flippen, Josephine, Richmond, Va.
 Foltz, Edward S., Olathe, Kans.
 Ford, Catherine, Belleville, Ontario, Canada.
 Formwalt, Laura Johnson, Knoxville, Tenn.
 Forrester, Thomas Carlow, Rochester, N. Y.
 Fosdick, Mrs. Mary D., Danville, Ky.
 Foss, Mrs. Bertha, Providence, R. I.
 Foster, Rachel E., Olathe, Kans.
 Fowler, Ruth M., Rochester, N. Y.
 Fox, J. E., Austin, Tex.
 Fox, Thomas F., Caldwell, N. J.
 Franck, Henry, Berkeley, Calif.
 Franklin, Norine, Austin, Tex.
 Franks, Marion, Talladega, Ala.
 Freck, Phyllis, New York, N. Y.
 Fruewald, Mrs. Elizabeth, Knoxville, Tenn.
 Fridrich, Loretta, Sioux Falls, S. Dak.
 Frisch, Frances, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Fry, Mrs. Sarah R., Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Fulcone, George A., St. Louis, Mo.
 Fulton, Mary E., Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Fusfeld, Irving S., Washington, D. C.
 Gahman, Mrs. Ruth L., New York, N. Y.
 Gaiennie, Gervais, Baton Rouge, La.
 Gaiennie, Mrs. Lillian M., Baton Rouge, La.
 Gale, Antonette, Frederick, Md.
 Galligan, Grace, Delavan, Wis.
 Gallimore, Ray H., Morganton, N. C.
 Galloway, James H., Baton Rouge, La.
 Gamblin, Rudolph, Austin, Tex.
 Ganey, J. S., Talladega, Ala.
 Garman, Mary Hill, Fulton, Mo.
 Garrison, Lucille, Austin, Tex.
 Gaskell, Nyra E., Frederick, Md.
 Gay, Mrs. Ruth C., Baton Rouge, La.
 Geary, Catherine P., New York, N. Y.
 Gerber, Louis, St. Augustine, Fla.
 Gerry, Leila E., West Trenton, N. J.
 Gertrude, Sister Rose, Buffalo, N. Y.
 Gibbons, Doris, West Hartford, Conn.
 Gibbons, Mrs. M. D., Austin, Tex.
 Gibbons, Mrs. Nell A., Cave Spring, Ga.
 Gibson, Ann M., Rochester, N. Y.
 Gildea, Marie, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Giles, Mrs. Cordelia H., Morganton, N. C.
 Gill, Mrs. Addie W., Staunton, Va.
 Gladwin, Mrs. Rachel, Omaha, Nebr.
 Glenn, Sallie, Fulton, Mo.
 Goebel, Bertha A., Jacksonville, Ill.
 Goetter, Marie S., Omaha, Nebr.
 Golden, Nannie, Talladega, Ala.
 Goldfarb, Eleanor, Rochester, N. Y.
 Gordon, Georgianna, West Hartford, Conn.
 Gose, Anna, Gooding, Idaho.
 Gosman, Sydney, Staunton, Va.
 Gough, John A., Sulphur, Okla.
 Gover, Dyrus L., West Hartford, Conn.
 Gowan, Mrs. Yvonne K., Sulphur, Okla.
 Grace, John F., St. Louis, Mo.
 Grace, William F., Talladega, Ala.
 Grady, Mrs. Elizabeth B., Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Graef, Dorothy, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Graham, Marion J., Chicago, Ill.
 Grant, Mary Belle, Indianapolis, Ind.
 Gray, Mabel H., Northampton, Mass.
 Greene, Harriett, St. Augustine, Fla.
 Greenwell, Mrs. Walden, Romney, W. Va.
 Griffing, W. T., Sulphur, Okla.
 Groht, Mildred A., New York, N. Y.
 Grosvenor, Flora N., Rochester, N. Y.
 Grow, Charles B., Danville, Ky.
 Grow, Harvey P., Danville, Ky.
 Grow, Mrs. Harvey P., Danville, Ky.
 Grow, William H., St. Augustine, Fla.
 Gruss, Betty, Sioux Falls, S. Dak.
 Guerrant, Mrs. Josephine E., Danville, Ky.
 Gulick, Mrs. Mabel, Olathe, Kans.
 Haaser, Augusta, Colorado Springs, Colo.

- Hage, Mrs. Chas., Austin, Tex.
 Hague, John B., Rome, N. Y.
 Hahn, Lillian, Overlea, Md.
 Haigler, Hartley, El Paso, Tex.
 Haines, Fred, Romney, W. Va.
 Haines, Mrs. Margaret, Romney, W. Va.
 Hale, Mrs. Thelma, Olathe, Kans.
 Hall, Harriet M., White Plains, N. Y.
 Hall, Inis B., Watertown, Mass.
 Hall, Jonathan, Washington, D. C.
 Hall, L. B., Sulphur, Okla.
 Hall, Percival, Washington, D. C.
 Hall, Percival, Jr., Washington, D. C.
 Hallman, Anna E., Olathe, Kans.
 Halverson, Irene, Faribault, Minn.
 Hamel, Clara A., Rochester, N. Y.
 Hammond, Ethelwyn, Kansas City, Mo.
 Hammond, Marjorie, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Hampton, Ethel, Morganton, N. C.
 Hand, Augusta, Catlett, Va.
 Haren, Genevieve, Columbus, Ohio.
 Harlow, George W., Philadelphia, Pa.
 Harned, Marion C., Des Moines, Iowa.
 Harner, Zella A., Fulton, Mo.
 Harrell, Hattie, Rochester, N. Y.
 Harrington, Sue, Santa Fe, N. Mex.
 Harris, Mrs. Elizabeth, Rumford, R. I.
 Harris, Glenn I., Colorado Springs, Colo.
 Harrison, Lloyd A., Berkeley, Calif.
 Harwood, Viola, Devils Lake, N. Dak.
 Haskell, Eldora, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Haskins, Harriet L., Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Haston, W. B., Austin, Tex.
 Hatchett, Mrs. Mary E., Colorado.
 Hatfield, F. O., Faribault, Minn.
 Hatfield, Gertrude, Akron, Ohio.
 Hatfield, Jessie M., Berkeley, Calif.
 Hauberg, Margaret, Little Rock, Ark.
 Hawkinson, Ruth, Staunton, Va.
 Haybeck, Mrs. Bertha Wolf, Austin, Tex.
 Hayes, Mrs. Edith, Sulphur, Okla.
 Haynes, J. C., Austin, Tex.
 Haynes, John W., Talladega, Ala.
 Healy, Joseph E., Staunton, Va.
 Heber, Waldo, West Hartford, Conn.
 Hector, Elizabeth R., Jackson, Miss.
 Hedgecock, Le Roy D., West Trenton, N. J.
 Heishman, William, Romney, W. Va.
 Helditch, Julia, Mystic, Conn.
 Hembrook, Margaret, Berkeley, Calif.
 Hendee, Mrs. Ida C., Omaha, Nebr.
 Henderson, D. T., Little Rock, Ark.
 Henderson, Jennie M., Roxbury, Mass.
 Henderson, Mrs. M. T., St. Paul, Minn.
 Henderson, Mrs. Myrtle, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Hendrix, Emma Lee, Austin, Tex.
 Henry, Mrs. Mary H., Flint, Mich.
 Henson, Hortense, Little Rock, Ark.
 Hester, Marshall S., Berkeley, Calif.
 Hicks, Glennice, Talladega, Ala.
 Hicks, Mary Frances, Baton Rouge, La.
 Higgins, Mrs. Catherine, Danville, Ky.
 Higgins, Elizabeth, St. Augustine, Fla.
 Higgins, Francis C., Danville, Ky.
 Highsmith, Lula Belle, St. Augustine, Fla.
 Hill, E. Pinckney, Fulton, Mo.
 Hill, Mrs. Mary E., Omaha, Nebr.
 Hinkson, Mrs. Pearl, Little Rock, Ark.
 Hobart, Marvel C., Delavan, Wis.
 Hoberg, Walter R., White Plains, N. Y.
 Hoffmeyer, Ben, Cedar Springs, S. C.
 Hoffmeyer, Claude B., Danville, Ky.
 Hofsteater, Mrs. H. F., Talladega, Ala.
 Hoge, Miss Leslie, Kansas City, Mo.
 Hogle, Eugene, St. Augustine, Fla.
 Hogle, Mrs. Lily, St. Augustine, Fla.
 Holland, Peggy, Austin, Tex.
 Hollingsworth, C. H., Cave Spring, Ga.
 Holt, Martha, Austin, Tex.
 Holzinger, Bessie S., Honolulu, T. H.
 Honan, Bernadine, Little Rock, Ark.
 Hopkins, Mrs. Leonora H., St. Augustine, Fla.
 Hopper, Eunice, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Hornsby, Exa, Austin, Tex.
 Hornsby, Leah, Austin, Tex.
 Hornsby, Myrtle, Austin, Tex.
 Horton, Mrs. Moselle K., Morganton, N. C.
 Houchin, Thelma, Frederick, Md.
 Houchins, Mrs. Josephine, Staunton, Va.
 Houston, Mrs. T. E., Baton Rouge, La.
 Howard, Mrs. Evelyn S., Rochester, N. Y.
 Howes, Esther C., Chicago, Ill.
 Hubbard, Paul D., Olathe, Kans.
 Hubert, Sister M., Buffalo, N. Y.
 Huddle, Mrs. Nannie, Austin, Tex.
 Hudgin, Sara G., Knoxville, Ky.
 Huff, Doris E., Vancouver, Wash.
 Huff, Hiram, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Huff, Kenneth, Danville, Ky.
 Huff, Mrs. Kenneth, Danville, Ky.
 Huffman, Virginia, Knoxville, Tenn.
 Hughes, Ada Belle, Fulton, Mo.
 Hughes, Frederick H., Washington, D. C.
 Hughes, Peter T., Fulton, Mo.
 Humphrey, Madge A., Delavan, Wis.
 Humphreys, Evelyn, Dayton, Ohio.
 Hunsinger, Gilbert, New York, N. Y.
 Hunt, Edna, Indianapolis, Ind.
 Huntman, Leona M., Flint, Mich.
 Hurd, Uel, Olathe, Kans.
 Hurd, Mrs. Mildred, Delavan, Wis.
 Husett, Mrs. Florence, Romney, W. Va.
 Iles, Edmisten W., New York, N. Y.
 Ingle, Mrs. Helen F., Dayton, Ohio.
 Ingle, Truman L., Fulton, Mo.
 Ingle, Mrs. Truman L., Fulton, Mo.
 Ingram, Eloise J., Faribault, Minn.
 Jack, Hazel, St. Augustine, Fla.

- Jackson, Harriet, Columbus, Ohio.
 Jackson, Mrs. Helen, Baton Rouge, La.
 Jackson, Jessie W., Omaha, Nebr.
 Janet, Sister M., University City, Mo.
 Jayne, Alma C., West Hartford, Conn.
 Jayne, Gladys G., Knoxville, Tenn.
 Jeans, W. M., West Trenton, N. J.
 Jefferson, Mrs. Emma R., Omaha, Nebr.
 Jeffery, Nadine, St. Augustine, Fla.
 Jenkins, Dora W., Frederick, Md.
 Jennings, Jo A., Sulphur, Okla.
 Jesseman, Mrs. Victoria C., Roxbury, Mass.
 Jeter, Nan, Morganton, N. C.
 Jochem, C. M., West Trenton, N. J.
 Johnson, Bess R., Des Moines, Iowa.
 Johnson, Clyde W., Jacksonville, Ill.
 Johnson, Edwin T., Faribault, Minn.
 Johnson, Elizabeth, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Johnson, Franc, Talladega, Ala.
 Johnson, Irma, Talladega, Ala.
 Johnson, William, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Johnston, Ura Mae, Little Rock, Ark.
 Johnstone, Mrs. Sally, Cleveland, Ohio.
 Jones, Carrie L., Columbus, Ohio.
 Jones, C. E., Talladega, Ala.
 Jones, Mrs. C. E., Talladega, Ala.
 Jones, Earl, Sioux Falls, S. Dak.
 Jones, Mrs. Earl, Sioux Falls, S. Dak.
 Jones, Eleanor P., Scranton, Pa.
 Jones, Helen, St. Augustine, Fla.
 Jones, Mrs. Lillian R., Baton Rouge, La.
 Jones, Ogwen, Salem, Oreg.
 Jones, Mrs. Taylor B., Fulton, Mo.
 Jones, Uriel C., Knoxville, Tenn.
 Jordan, Edith, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Judy, Olyn H., Romney, W. Va.
 Kannapell, Mary E., Danville, Ky.
 Kauffman, D. Frances, New York, N. Y.
 Kaufman, M. R., St. Louis, Mo.
 Keckeissen, Jeannette, New York, N. Y.
 Keller, Margaret H., Romney, W. Va.
 Kelly, Patrick J., Fulton, Mo.
 Kelly, Mrs. Patrick J., Fulton, Mo.
 Kennard, Mrs. Marie, Cave Spring, Ga.
 Kennedy, Eloise, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Kennedy, Florence M., Devils Lake, N. Dak.
 Kennedy, Mary, Danville, Ky.
 Kent, Alfred L., Olathe, Kans.
 Kent, Margaret S., Frederick, Md.
 Kepler, Edra, Omaha, Nebr.
 Kepler, M. Adele, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Kerr, M. Marcus, West Trenton, N. J.
 Kessler, Mrs. Myrtle M. Corey, Knoxville, Tenn.
 Kester, Dorothy, Cleveland, Ohio.
 Kester, Sarah E., Romney, W. Va.
 Kimbro, Lillian, Little Rock, Ark.
 King, Clyde, Gooding, Idaho.
 King, Elizabeth, Rochester, N. Y.
 King, Mrs. Nell H., Romney, W. Va.
 King, Willa Mae, Colorado Springs, Colo.
 Kinsley, Grace, Indianapolis, Ind.
 Kirkley, James R., Romney, W. Va.
 Kirkpatrick, Mrs. Mildred, Sulphur, Okla.
 Kirkpatrick, R. N., Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Klein, John A., Detroit, Mich.
 Klenke, Paul, Cincinnati, Ohio.
 Kline, Thomas K., Washington, D. C.
 Kludy, Hazel, Flint, Mich.
 Knisley, Dorothy, St. Louis, Mo.
 Knochenmus, Mrs. Reana, Sioux Falls, S. Dak.
 Kohlman, Mrs. Dorothy C., New York, N. Y.
 Kone, Roberta, Austin, Tex.
 Koob, Ethel, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Kowalewski, Felix, Romney, W. Va.
 Kozlar, Stephen W., Fulton, Mo.
 Krallman, Esther D., Lincoln, Nebr.
 Krantz, Mrs. Henrietta, Honolulu, T. H.
 Krause, A. E., Romney, W. Va.
 Krohn, A. J., Sioux Falls, S. Dak.
 Kulda, Alice, Berkeley, Calif.
 Kuster, Amelia D., Omaha, Nebr.
 Kuster, Mabel, Omaha, Nebr.
 Lacy, Marcella C., Honolulu, T. H.
 Ladner, Emil Stephen, Berkeley, Calif.
 Laird, Margaret, Des Moines, Iowa.
 Lajeunesse, Frances, Baton Rouge, La.
 Lamkin, Mrs. Loretta D., New York, N. Y.
 Lane, Mrs. Helen S., St. Louis, Mo.
 Lang, George M., White Plains, N. Y.
 Lapides, Michael, Berkeley, Calif.
 La Rochelle, Mary B., West Hartford, Conn.
 Larson, Mrs. Nelle R., Jacksonville, Ill.
 La Rue, Mrs. Mary S., Romney, W. Va.
 La Rue, Rebecca, Fulton, Mo.
 Lauritsen, Wesley, Faribault, Minn.
 Lautenbach, Ilma A., Jackson, Mich.
 Lee, Louise C., Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Lee, Mrs. Louise W., Honolulu, T. H.
 Lee, Madison J., Danville, Ky.
 Leech, Amy Hales, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Leenhouts, Myron A., Rochester, N. Y.
 Lester, Mrs. Isabel M., Berkeley, Calif.
 Lewis, Lucy, Little Rock, Ark.
 Lewis, Sarah E., Beverly, Mass.
 Lillard, Sadie, Great Falls, Mont.
 Lindsey, Nellie I., Gooding, Idaho.
 Lineberry, G. E., Raleigh, N. C.
 Lines, Mildred, Olathe, Kans.
 Link, Mason, Fulton, Mo.
 Lintner, Emily, Berkeley, Calif.
 Llewellyn, Mrs. Geneva B., Delavan, Wis.
 Long, L. A., Devils Lake, N. Dak.
 Lowe, Dora H., Delavan, Wis.

- Lynes, Evelyn, Fulton, Mo.
 MacDonald, Charles E., Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada.
 MacDonald, Margaret, Sioux Falls, S. Dak.
 MacDonald, Nellie V., Toronto, Ontario, Canada.
 MacGregor, Bessie B., Columbus, Ohio
 Mackness, Lucile, St. Augustine, Fla.
 Macomber, Marianna, Northampton, Mass.
 MacVeagh, Dorothy, West Hartford, Conn.
 Maddox, Maxie Clare, Olathe, Kans.
 Maddox, Mildred, Sulphur, Okla.
 Magearl, W. H., Baton Rouge, La.
 Magill, Mary E., Chicago, Ill.
 Mallow, Mrs. Wilda P., Romney, W. Va.
 Mannen, Grace, Omaha, Nebr.
 Manning, A. C., Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Marbut, Musa, West Trenton, N. J.
 Markley, Edwin A., West Trenton, N. J.
 Marsden, Robert T., Little Rock, Ark.
 Marsh, Meryl, Fontana, Calif.
 Marshall, Catherine, Berkeley, Calif.
 Marshall, Emma R., Omaha, Nebr.
 Marshall, Zoe A., St. Augustine, Fla.
 Martin, Mary, Memphis, Tenn.
 Martino, Rae, Flint, Mich.
 Mather, Mrs. Natalie C., Flint, Mich.
 Matthies, Adolph, Austin, Tex.
 Mauger, Alice M., Frederick, Md.
 Maura, Sister M., Buffalo, N. Y.
 Mauzy, M. Christine, Morganton, N. C.
 May, Eloise, Austin, Tex.
 Mayers, Lewis M., Colorado Springs, Colo.
 Mayhew, J. Wesley, Berkeley, Calif.
 McAlister, Chetwynd H., Honolulu, T. H.
 McAlister, Mrs. Grace W., Honolulu, T. H.
 McArtor, Sheldon, Berkeley, Calif.
 McCain, Bertha, Colorado Springs, Colo.
 McCanner, Hazel, Frederick, Md.
 McCaskill, W. J., Melbourne, Australia.
 McClanahan, Mrs. Rosalie, Fulton, Mo.
 McClure, William J., Washington, D. C.
 McCullough, Evelyn, Knoxville, Tenn.
 McCune, Virginia, Little Rock, Ark.
 McDaniel, Nettie, Beverly, Mass.
 McDermott, Juliet, Cave Spring, Ga.
 McDonald, Mrs. Mildred W., Baton Rouge, La.
 McElroy, Mrs. Lucy Lee, Fulton, Mo.
 McEvoy, Eleanor P., New York, N. Y.
 McFarlane, John H., Talladega, Ala.
 McGee, Elsie, E., Olathe, Kans.
 McGeehe, Mrs. C. G., Baton Rouge, La.
 McIlvain, E. H., Olathe, Kans.
 McIntosh, Aline K., Santa Fe, N. Mex.
 McKellar, Margaret, Overlea, Md.
 McKern, Clyde, Fulton, Mo.
 McKibben, Sue, Indianapolis, Ind.
 McKneely, Mrs. W. C., Baton Rouge, La.
 McLane, Willie, St. Augustine, Fla.
 McLaughlin, Clayton L., Rochester, N. Y.
 McLaughlin, Harriet F., New York, N. Y.
 McLaughlin, Mrs. Hazel, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 McMillan, Katherine B., Talladega, Ala.
 McNeil, Mrs. Marie, New York, N. Y.
 McPherson, Lillian, Knoxville, Tenn.
 McPhillips, Rev. Everett W., Providence, R. I.
 Medlock, Hilda, Little Rock, Ark.
 Menzemer, H. J., Knoxville, Tenn.
 Menzies, Mrs. R. M., Morganton, N. C.
 Merilla, Arthur M., Morganton, N. C.
 Merklin, Arthur, Fulton, Mo.
 Meyer, Hannah C., Faribault, Minn.
 Meyers, Maggie, Little Rock, Ark.
 Michael, Mrs. Sarah, Rochester, N. Y.
 Michaels, Nira, Little Rock, Ark.
 Miles, Lottie J., Knoxville, Tenn.
 Miller, Ada R., Cedar Spring, S. C.
 Miller, Clarence E., Indianapolis, Ind.
 Miller, Elvena, Seattle, Wash.
 Miller, Mrs. Gertrude, Olathe, Kans.
 Miller, Hanna, New York, N. Y.
 Miller, June, Kansas City, Mo.
 Miller, Linda K., Chicago, Ill.
 Miller, Mabel F., Northampton, Mass.
 Milligan, William M., Jacksonville, Ill.
 Moberly, Mrs. Vering, Olathe, Kans.
 Molohon, Ruby, Colorado Springs, Colo.
 Montgomery, Mrs. Edythe D., Cave Springs, Ga.
 Moore, Frederick A., Columbus, Ohio.
 Moore, Mrs. Marvin, Fulton, Mo.
 Moore, Ruby, Baton Rouge, La.
 Moore, W. Burton, Fulton, Mo.
 Moran, William E., Omaha, Nebr.
 Morehead, Rosina, Baton Rouge, La.
 Morgan, Mabel, Talladega, Ala.
 Morris, Dorothy M., Northampton, Mass.
 Morrison, J. Stewart, Fulton, Mo.
 Morrison, N. S., Austin, Tex.
 Moss, Elizabeth L., Indianapolis, Ind.
 Mossell, Max, Fulton, Mo.
 Mourey, Joseph, St. Augustine, Fla.
 Mouton, Mae, Baton Rouge, La.
 Mowry, Sara, Honolulu, T. H.
 Mudgett, David, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Mudgett, Mrs. David, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Mulcahy, Grace, Rochester, N. Y.
 Mulholland, Ann, Roxbury, Mass.
 Mull, Blanche C. A., Mystic, Conn.
 Murphy, Anna, Tucson, Ariz.
 Murphy, Joyce L., Sulphur, Okla.
 Murphy, Kenneth, West Trenton, N. J.

- Murphy, Mrs. Sophie Hilliard, Colorado Springs, Colo.
 Murray, Mrs. Alberta B., Austin, Tex.
 Mussman, Madeline, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Myers, Helen, Baton Rouge, La.
 Myers, Julius L., St. Augustine, Fla.
 Myers, Thelma D., Moline, Ill.
 Myklebust, A. S., Sioux Falls, S. Dak.
 Myklebust, Esther, Faribault, Minn.
 Nace, John G., Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Neal, Ermine, Malone, N. Y.
 *Nelson, Edith Mabel, Washington, D. C.
 New, Mary C., New York, N. Y.
 Newlee, Clara E., Chicago, Ill.
 Nichols, Emma C., Danville, Ky.
 Nielsen, Ralph, Omaha, Nebr.
 Nies, Mrs. Maud H., White Plains, N. Y.
 Nilson, Roy F., Columbus, Ohio.
 Noble, E. Le Roy, West Hartford, Conn.
 Noe, Julia, Austin, Tex.
 Noland, Kathleen E., Frederick, Md.
 Norman, Mrs. Doris, Sulphur, Okla.
 Norris, Arthur G., Fulton, Mo.
 Norris, Mrs. Mamie, Olathe, Kans.
 Norsworthy, Rosina, Baton Rouge, La.
 Northrop, Helen, Vancouver, Wash.
 Norton, Mrs. Alice, Little Rock, Ark.
 Nortz, Naomi, Devils Lake, N. Dak.
 Numbers, Fred C., Jr., Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Numbers, Mrs. Leona, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Numbers, Mary E., Northampton, Mass.
 Nunnelley, Josephine, Knoxville, Tenn.
 Oaks, Marcene, Faribault, Minn.
 O'Brien, Bertha J., New York, N. Y.
 O'Brien, John, Indianapolis, Ind.
 O'Brien, Rosemary, Devils Lake, N. Dak.
 O'Connor, Clarence D., New York, N. Y.
 Oehler, Hannah, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Oehler, Phoebe E., Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Ohlemacher, Albert W., Columbus, Ohio.
 Olney, Pansy, Sioux Falls, S. Dak.
 Olsen, N. Emelle, Northampton, Mass.
 O'Neal, Mildred E., Rochester, N. Y.
 Onstott, Sue, Baton Rouge, La.
 Orenbaum, Ruth, Austin, Tex.
 Orman, Mrs. Doris B., Jacksonville, Ill.
 Orman, James N., Jacksonville, Ill.
 Orr, Della M., Jacksonville, Ill.
 Orr, John P., Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Orr, Marie P., St. Augustine, Fla.
 Orr, Nannie C., West Hartford, Conn.
 Osburn, Nora Lina, Sioux Falls, S. Dak.
 Oswald, Sister Mary, Randolph, Mass.
 Otis, Cecelia E., White Plains, N. Y.
 Paananen, Edna I., Fulton, Mo.
 Palmer, Bernice, Little Rock, Ark.
 Palmer, L. Arthur, Knoxville, Tenn.
 Palmer, Patti, Jackson, Miss.
 Palmer, Sam D., Honolulu, T. H.
 Parish, Marline, Knoxville, Tenn.
 Park, Mrs. Dorothy, St. Augustine, Fla.
 Parker, Kathleen, Morganton, N. C.
 Parks, Fern D., Cave Spring, Ga.
 Parks, Lloyd R., Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Parks, Roy G., Berkeley, Calif.
 Parrish, O. G., West Trenton, N. J.
 Patterson, Donaldina, Berkeley, Calif.
 Patterson, Mrs. Oattie, Romney, W. Va.
 Patton, Livingston, Washington, D. C.
 Paxson, Grace, Omaha, Nebr.
 Pearce, Mrs. Ray H., Fulton, Mo.
 Pearson, Lucile, Morganton, N. C.
 Peck, Grace E., White Plains, N. Y.
 Peet, Elizabeth, Washington, D. C.
 Peterson, Edwin G., Great Falls, Mont.
 Peterson, Nicholas, Omaha, Nebr.
 Petseys, Elizabeth, Faribault, Minn.
 Phelan, Francis L., Randolph, Mass.
 Phillips, Richard, Indianapolis, Ind.
 Phillips, Spencer, Baton Rouge, La.
 Pittinger, Priscilla, Cleveland, Ohio.
 Plapinger, Shirley, Rome, N. Y.
 Poag, Dorothy, Knoxville, Tenn.
 Poore, Mrs. H. T., Knoxville, Tenn.
 Porter, Mrs. Barbara, Omaha, Nebr.
 Powers, Grace, Chicago, Ill.
 Presson, Dorothy, Austin, Tex.
 Price, Guard S., Sulphur, Okla.
 Probyn, Mrs. June, West Hartford, Conn.
 Proctor, Maggie N., Knoxville, Tenn.
 Pugh, Bessie, St. Augustine, Fla.
 Purcell, Edythe, Gooding, Idaho.
 Putnam, George H., Jacksonville, Ill.
 Pynn, Mrs. Gertrude, Delavan, Wis.
 Quigley, Howard M., Olathe, Kans.
 Quinn, Josephine F., Faribault, Minn.
 Quinn, Mrs. Marguerite, Frederick, Md.
 Quinn, Marion C., Oshkosh, Wis.
 Quinn, Sarah, Frederick, Md.
 Radcliffe, Edith H., Frederick, Md.
 Rakow, Jules P., West Hartford, Conn.
 Rakow, Mrs. Lillian G., West Hartford, Conn.
 Ramsey, Charles, Olathe, Kans.
 Raney, Jackson A., Indianapolis, Ind.
 Raney, Kate D., Omaha, Nebr.
 Rankin, Carl E., Morganton, N. C.
 Rankin, Jean, Mystic, Conn.
 Rankin, Linnie, Morganton, N. C.
 Rasnick, Alva, Little Rock, Ark.
 Rawlings, Charles G., Indianapolis, Ind.
 Rawlings, Emily, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Rawlings, Mrs. Emma H., Jacksonville, Ill.
 Raymond, Mrs. Ollie, Romney, W. Va.
 Read, Elizabeth, Danville, Ky.
 Read, Mrs. M. K., Kansas City, Mo.
 Reay, Edward W., Rochester, N. Y.

- Reed, Nell Driggs, Los Angeles, Calif.
 Reeder, Dwight W., West Trenton, N. J.
 Reese, Mrs. O. B., Sulphur, Okla.
 Regina, Sister M., Buffalo, N. Y.
 Reid, Mrs. Josephine H., Fulton, Mo.
 Reid, William C., Fulton, Mo.
 Reiter, Frank H., Northampton, Mass.
 Remsburg, Annette H., Frederick, Md.
 Renner, Wm. A., White Plains, N. Y.
 Ressler, Rhoda M., Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Rhodes, Alice B., Austin, Tex.
 Rhodes, E. R., Sulphur, Okla.
 Rice, Elizabeth H., Fulton, Mo.
 Richardson, Mrs. Dorothy C., Berkeley, Calif.
 Rider, Darrel W., Malone, N. Y.
 Ridings, Mrs. A. K., Flint, Mich.
 Ridings, A. LeRoy, Flint, Mich.
 Rigsbee, Mrs. Myra, Austin, Tex.
 Riser, Catherine, Talladega, Ala.
 Roach, Mildred, Little Rock, Ark.
 Roberts, Corinne R., West Trenton, N. J.
 Robinson, Mary W., Berkeley, Calif.
 Rockwell, Walter C., West Hartford, Conn.
 Rodgers, Mrs. Olive S., Denver, Colo.
 Rodrigue, Mrs. Bessie C., Baton Rouge, La.
 Roeder, Augusta, St. Louis, Mo.
 Rogers, Mildred, Sulphur, Okla.
 Roishouse, Theresa, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Roots, Mrs. Mary, Sulphur, Okla.
 Rose, Sister Anna, University City, Mo.
 Rosen, Mrs. Ruth T., Staunton, Va.
 Rosenberg, Clara, Overlea, Md.
 Ross, Mary, Olathe, Kans.
 Rosser, Virginia, San Francisco, Calif.
 Roth, Stanley D., Fulton, Mo.
 Rountree, Lawrence, Little Rock, Ark.
 Rousseau, Blanche M., Flint, Mich.
 Royster, James F., Danville, Ky.
 Royston, Mattie, Little Rock, Ark.
 Ruggles, Jane, Portland, Maine.
 Rupley, Stella C., Knoxville, Tenn.
 Russell, G. Oscar, Ogden, Utah.
 Russell, Lang, Colorado Springs, Colo.
 Russell, Mary Scott, Tucson, Ariz.
 Ryals, Mrs. Etta, Little Rock, Ark.
 Rybak, John, Buffalo, N. Y.
 Saddler, Virginia, Jackson, Miss.
 Salvesen, Gjerulld, White Plains, N. Y.
 Savage, Frances A., New York, N. Y.
 Savage, Julia W., Malone, N. Y.
 Scanlon, Nelle, Romney, W. Va.
 Schaeffer, Mrs. Elizabeth, Circleville, Ohio.
 Scheringer, Ann, Faribault, Minn.
 Schicker, Mrs. Virginia, Little Rock, Ark.
 Schmidt, Mary, Fulton, Mo.
 Schoneman, Fred W., Jacksonville, Ill.
 Schoolfield, Mrs. O. P., Austin, Tex.
 Schoppert, Thelma, Romney, W. Va.
 Schrick, Charlotte, Chicago, Ill.
 Schubert, Donald T., White Plains, N. Y.
 Schunhoff, Hugo, Austin, Tex.
 Schwarz, Mrs. Carrie E., Omaha, Nebr.
 Scouten, Edward L., Washington, D. C.
 Scyster, Margaret, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Searight, Mary Belle, Austin, Tex.
 Seaton, Charles D., Romney, W. Va.
 Selber, Stanley F., Oakland, Calif.
 Seibert, Elsie M., Romney, W. Va.
 Settles, Clarence J., St. Augustine, Fla.
 Sevier, Vol., Jacksonville, Ill.
 Sewell, Ila S., Cave Spring, Ga.
 Shaffer, Chester M., Knoxville, Tenn.
 Shaffer, John A., Portland, Maine.
 Shaver, John W., Austin, Tex.
 Shields, Lurline B., Vancouver, Wash.
 Sherwood, Cyril B., Rockford, Ill.
 Shibley, Luther, Little Rock, Ark.
 Shields, Katherine, Brighton, Mass.
 Shipnough, Joe R., Jr., Great Falls, Mont.
 Shipman, E. C., Fulton, Mo.
 Shouldice, Bernice, Seattle, Wash.
 Shropshire, Zack, Austin, Tex.
 Silvermen, S. Richard, St. Louis, Mo.
 Simmons, Isabel, Sulphur, Okla.
 Simpson, Mrs. Iona, Olathe, Kans.
 Sims, Ruth L., Talladega, Ala.
 Sine, Ellen, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Sitton, Anne, Akron, Ohio.
 Sitton, Jane, Akron, Ohio.
 Skaggs, Mrs. Clover H., Cincinnati, Ohio.
 Skehan, Mary Florence, Talladega, Ala.
 Skyberg, Victor O., White Plains, N. Y.
 Slover, Mrs. Helen, Sulphur, Okla.
 Smalley, Robert C., Vancouver, Canada
 Smith, A. Leslie, Austin, Tex.
 Smith, Bessie, Austin, Tex.
 Smith, Carl F., Faribault, Minn.
 Smith, Mrs. Carl F., Faribault, Minn.
 Smith, Mrs. Elizabeth, Austin, Tex.
 Smith, Georgina E., Rochester, N. Y.
 Smith, Howard A., Great Falls, Mont.
 Smith, James M., Little Rock, Ark.
 Smith, Jess M., Jr., Knoxville, Tenn.
 Smith, Mrs. Martha, Little Rock, Ark.
 Smith, M. Elizabeth, Colorado Springs, Colo.
 Snider, Maureen, Little Rock, Ark.
 Sorrells, Elizabeth, Devils Lake, N. Dak.
 Sorrells, Gertrude B., Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Spainhour, Mary A., St. Augustine, Fla.
 Spainhour, Virginia G., Morganton, N. C.
 Sparks, Fred L., Jr., Romney, W. Va.
 Sparks, Hazeline C., Romney, W. Va.

- Spear, Erma Lee Hall, Knoxville, Tenn.
 Spence, Victor R., Faribault, Minn.
 Stack, Florence, Olathe, Kans.
 Stack, Henry, Malone, N. Y.
 Stack, Marion, Malone, N. Y.
 Staehle, Jack M., White Plains, N. Y.
 Stafford, Julia, Fulton, Mo.
 St. Amant, Mrs. J. E., Baton Rouge, La.
 Stamey, Mrs. J. E., Baton Rouge, La.
 Starr, Albert L., Fulton, Mo.
 Starrett, Mrs. J. M., Morganton, N. C.
 Stayton, Lotta, Little Rock, Ark.
 Steed, Mrs. J. L., Salem, Oreg.
 Stegemerten, Henry J., Overlea, Md.
 Stelle, R., Moore, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Sterck, Margaret S., Wilmington, Del.
 Stevenson, Elwood A., Berkeley, Calif.
 Stewart, Mrs. Avis W., Delavan, Wis.
 Stewart, Mrs. Belle W., Colorado Springs, Colo.
 Stewart, Mrs. Ellen P., Washington, D. C.
 Stokes, Mrs. Frank E., Fulton, Mo.
 Stratton, Mrs. Virginia, Staunton, Va.
 Streng, Alice, Milwaukee, Wis.
 Strieby, Mrs. Dorothy R., Romney, W. Va.
 Strong, Elma, Colorado Springs, Colo.
 Stroud, Edith, Baton Rouge, La.
 Stroud, Jennie Mayes, St. Augustine, Fla.
 Struck, Mrs. Edith McGlynn, Berkeley, Calif.
 Sturdevant, Mildred P., Staunton, Va.
 Sullivan, James A., West Hartford, Conn.
 Sullivan, James English, Washington, D. C.
 Summerville, Mrs. Ruth, Indianapolis, Ind.
 Sundstrom, Florence, Indianapolis, Ind.
 Sutter, Mrs. Katherine I., San Francisco, Calif.
 Swain, Jack, Danville, Ky.
 Szopa, Marie M., West Hartford, Conn.
 Tabor, Agnes, Devils Lake, N. Dak.
 Taft, Carolyn Gay, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Talbot, Mabel, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Tart, Mrs. Virginia W., St. Augustine, Fla.
 Tate, Elizabeth, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Tate, Mrs. Pattie T., Morganton, N. C.
 Taylor, Harris, New York, N. Y.
 Taylor, John E., Staunton, Va.
 Taylor, John T., Jacksonville, Ill.
 Taylor, Mrs. Margaret L., West Hartford, Conn.
 Taylor, Robert J., West Hartford, Conn.
 Templeman, May C., St. Louis, Mo.
 Ten Broeck, Catherine M., Berkeley, Calif.
 Thomas, Alyce, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Thomas, Eleanor, West Hartford, Conn.
 Thomas, Mrs. Helen W., Delavan, Wis.
 Thomas, Louise, Little Rock, Ark.
 Thomas, Mrs. Margaret L., Flint, Mich.
 Thomas, Pearl, Fulton, Mo.
 Thomason, Mrs. F. S., Morganton, N. C.
 Thomason, Minnie A., Knoxville, Tenn.
 Thompson, Alyce, St. Augustine, Fla.
 Thompson, Eleanor R., West Hartford, Conn.
 Thornton, Eugenia, Talledega, Ala.
 Tillinghast, Edward W., Tucson, Ariz.
 Tillinghast, Mary E., Rochester, N. Y.
 Timberlake, Evelyn M., West Trenton, N. J.
 Tinnin, Helen, Austin, Tex.
 Tittsworth, Betty, West Hartford, Conn.
 Tittsworth, Laura, Fulton, Mo.
 Toler, Carrie C., Sulphur, Okla.
 Tollefson, Olaf, Cave Spring, Ga.
 Torgeson, Catherine, Olathe, Kans.
 Towler, Mary K., Faribault, Minn.
 Traylor, W. C., Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Trenham, Mrs. Julia P., Berkeley, Calif.
 Trentham, Milin, Omaha, Nebr.
 Treuke, Mrs. Lily, Omaha, Nebr.
 Triebert, H. Russell, Rochester, N. Y.
 Triebert, Mrs. H. R., Rochester, N. Y.
 Triebert, Raymond, Indianapolis, Ind.
 Tubbs, Erin, Talladega, Ala.
 Tucker, Dan P., White Plains, N. Y.
 Tucker, Mrs. Helen E., Mystic, Conn.
 Tucker, Myrtle M., Romney, W. Va.
 Turechek, Alice, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Turpen, Lorette, Devils Lake, N. Dak.
 Tyler, Carolyn, Indianapolis, Ind.
 Uhl, Cora, Romney, W. Va.
 Underhill, Odie W., Morganton, N. C.
 Utley, Jean, Cedar Spring, S. C.
 Van Allen, K. C., Halifax, Canada.
 Van Cleft, Margaret, Elyria, Ohio.
 Vaught, Mrs. Elizabeth, Danville, Ky.
 Veditz, Mrs. Bessie, Colorado Springs, Colo.
 Vermillion, Francis E., West Hartford, Conn.
 Vestal, J. M., Raleigh, N. C.
 Vincent, Sister Teresa, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Vinson, Mrs. Marietta R., Berkeley, Calif.
 Vorhees, Mayme H., White Plains, N. Y.
 Waisner, Thomas, Indianapolis, Ind.
 Waldhous, H. J., Cincinnati, Ohio.
 Walker, Arch, West Hartford, Conn.
 Walker, Hazel, Chicago, Ill.
 Walker, Hazel, Sulphur, Okla.
 Walker, Isabel, Washington, D. C.
 Walker, Newton F., Sioux Falls, S. Dak.
 Walker, W. Laurens, Cedar Spring, S. C.
 Wall, Nevelyn, Staunton, Va.
 Wallace, John M., Staunton, Va.
 Wallace, Mamie Louise, Staunton, Va.
 Walsh, Gertrude, New York, N. Y.
 Walter, Marion D., Omaha, Nebr.

- Warber, Mrs. Jessie E., Morganton, N. C.
 Ward, Herschel R., Knoxville, Tenn.
 Ware, J. R., Cave Spring, Ga.
 Ware, Sarah F., Cave Spring, Ga.
 Warfield, Ethel B., West Trenton, N. J.
 Warner, Florence, Cincinnati, Ohio.
 Warren, Ella L., St. Augustine, Fla.
 Warren, Jessie R., New York, N. Y.
 Washington, Josephine, Olathe, Kans.
 Waters, Mary Kate, St. Louis, Mo.
 Watrous, Elizabeth, Morganton, N. C.
 Watson, Charles W., New York, N. Y.
 Watson, Kathryn, Cave Spring, Ga.
 Weaver, Mrs. Edith C., Staunton, Va.
 Weaver, Madeline M., Rochester, N. Y.
 Webb, Erna, Austin, Tex.
 Webster, Adelaide C., Morganton, N. C.
 Webster, Jessie, Austin, Tex.
 Wedein, August, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Welch, Mrs. Mary R., Danville, Ky.
 Welles, John C., Knoxville, Tenn.
 Welles, Rosalee, Knoxville, Tenn.
 Wells, Mabel, Knoxville, Tenn.
 Welsh, Eugenia T., Providence, R. I.
 Welty, Harry L., Omaha, Nebr.
 Wenger, D. Hart, Ogden, Utah.
 Werbel, Frances, West Trenton, N. J.
 Werbel, Mrs. Wallace, Washington, D. C.
 West, Imogene, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Westfall, Irene, Rochester, N. Y.
 Wetherbee, Mrs. Beth M., West Hartford, Conn.
 Wetherill, Mrs. Stella J., Fulton, Mo.
 Weyerman, Charles, Austin, Tex.
 Whitcomb, Cynthia, Berkeley, Calif.
 White, Cecil, Cave Spring, Ga.
 White, Edith, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Whitsell, Mrs. Alice J., Berkeley, Calif.
 Wiggins, Mrs. Ruth M., Ogden, Utah.
 Wilber, Louise, Tucson, Ariz.
 Wilcoxson, William C., Berkeley, Calif.
 Wildt, Gertrude, West Hartford, Conn.
 Wilkinson, Blanche, Devils Lake, N. Dak.
 Williams, Boyce R., Indianapolis, Ind.
 Williams, Elizabeth K., Colorado Springs, Colo.
 Williams, Eva, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Williams, Mrs. Helen, Delavan, Wis.
 Williams, Lucile, Austin, Tex.
 Williams, Mrs. Lucille, Tucson, Ariz.
 Williams, Marjorie, Roxbury, Mass.
 Williams, Mary E., Delavan, Wis.
 Williams, Mary Lee, Austin, Tex.
 Williams, Opal Glyn, Baton Rouge, La.
 Williams, R. Wallace, Delavan, Wis.
 Williams, Walker R., St. Augustine, Fla.
 Wills, Mrs. Jennie W., Davenport, Iowa.
 Wilson, Dorothy D., Indianapolis, Ind.
 Wilson, Kenneth, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Wilson, Lalla, St. Augustine, Fla.
 Winston, Mattie E., New York, N. Y.
 Wittet, Beatrice, Roxbury, Mass.
 Wohlstrom, Elvira, Frederick, Md.
 Wolf, Mrs. Edna Long, Berkeley, Calif.
 Worke, Mary, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Wood, Mrs. Inez B., Austin, Tex.
 Wood, Mrs. Mary Deem, St. Louis, Mo.
 Wood, M. Wistar, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Wood, W. J., Austin, Tex.
 Woodburn, Mrs. Elizabeth, Tucson, Ariz.
 Wooden, Harley Z., Flint, Mich.
 Woodruff, Irvan, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Woodslyer, Mary, Danville, Ky.
 Wriggle, Mrs. Elizabeth, Little Rock, Ark.
 Wright, E. R., Austin, Tex.
 Wyland, Hugh C., Brooklyn, N. Y.
 Wynne, Mattie K., Staunton, Va.
 Yoder, Margaret L., Washington, D. C.
 Young, Louise T., Portland, Maine.
 Young, Ruth, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Yowell, Emily Cowan, Brattleboro, Vt.
 Zimble, Mrs. Mary K., Little Rock, Ark.
 Zimble, Nathan, Little Rock, Ark.
 Zimmerman, Kitty, Romney, W. Va.
 Zimmerman, Mrs. Vance, Romney, W. Va.
 Ziskowski, Julia, Brattleboro, Va.

*Deceased.

CONSTITUTION OF THE CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF

ARTICLE I. NAME

This association shall be called the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf.

ARTICLE II. OBJECTS

The objects of this association shall be:

First, To secure the harmonious union in one organization of all persons actually engaged in educating the deaf in America.

Second, To provide for general and local meetings of such persons from time to time, with a view of affording opportunities for a free interchange of views concerning methods and means of educating the deaf.

Third, To promote by the publication of reports, essays, and other writings, the education of the deaf on the broadest, most advanced, and practical lines, in harmony with the sentiments and practice suggested by the following preamble and resolutions unanimously adopted by the convention in 1886 at a meeting held in Berkeley, Calif.:

"Whereas the experience of many years in the instruction of the deaf has plainly shown that among members of this class of persons great differences exist in mental and physical conditions and in capacity for improvement, making results easily possible in certain cases which are practically and sometimes actually unattainable in others, these differences suggesting widely different treatment with different individuals: It is therefore

Resolved, That the system of instruction existing at present in America commends itself to the world, for the reason that its tendency is to include all known methods and expedients which have been found to be of value in the education of the deaf, while it allows diversity and independence of action and work at the same time, harmoniously aiming at the attainment of an object common to all.

Resolved, That earnest and persistent endeavors should be made in every school for the deaf to teach every pupil to speak and read from the lips, and that such efforts should be abandoned only when it is plainly evident that the measure of success attained does not justify the necessary amount of labor: *Provided*, That the children who are given to articulation teachers for trial should be given to teachers who are trained for the work, and not to novices, before saying that it is a failure: *And provided*, That a general test be made and that those who are found to have a sufficient hearing to distinguish sound shall be instructed orally."

Fourth, As an association to stand committed to no particular theory, method, or system, and adopting as its guide the following motto: "Any method for good results; all methods, and wedded to none."

ARTICLE III. MEMBERS

SECTION 1. All persons actively engaged in the education of the deaf may enjoy all the rights and privileges of membership in the association on payment of the prescribed fees and agreeing to this constitution.

SEC. 2. Eligibility of applicants is to be determined by the standing executive committee and reported to the convention.

SEC. 3. Any person may become an honorary member of the association, enjoying all the rights and privileges of membership, except those of voting and holding office, on being elected by vote of the association.

SEC. 4. Each person joining the association shall pay an initiation fee of \$1 and annual dues of \$1, but the payment of the initiation fee may be waived by the executive committee.

SEC. 5. There shall be in addition a registration fee of \$1 for each person registered at each regular meeting.

SEC. 6. Any member of the association desiring to commute the annual dues into single payment for life shall be constituted a life member on the payment of \$20.

SEC. 7. Applications for membership must be made to the treasurer, who will receive all membership fees and dues. All privileges of membership are forfeited by the nonpayment of dues.

ARTICLE IV. OFFICERS

SECTION 1. At each general meeting of the association there shall be elected by ballot a president, first vice president, second vice president, secretary, treasurer, and three directors, these eight persons forming the standing executive committee of the convention. They shall continue in office until their successors are elected, and shall have power to fill vacancies occurring in their body between general meetings.

SEC. 2. There shall be elected by ballot at each general meeting of the association nine leaders of committees, as follows: One for a section on supervision, one for a section on preschool and kindergarten, one for speech development, one for auricular training and rhythm, one for curriculum content, one for vocational training and art, one for health and physical education, one for social and character training, and one for a section on publication. Before the adjournment of each general meeting, or immediately thereafter, the leader of each section shall report to the executive committee for confirmation nominations of a chairman and additional members, not to exceed four, to serve on such committee.

SEC. 3. The general management of the affairs of the association shall be in the hands of the standing executive committee, subject to the provisions of such bylaws as the association shall see fit to adopt.

SEC. 4. All officers and members of committees must be active members of the association in regular standing.

SEC. 5. The standing executive committee shall make a full report at each general meeting of all the operations of the association, including receipts and disbursements of funds, since the preceding meeting.

ARTICLE V. MEETINGS

SECTION 1. General meetings of the association shall be held biennially, but the standing executive committee may call other general meetings at their discretion.

SEC. 2. Local meetings may be convened as the standing executive committee and the committees on local meetings shall determine.

SEC. 3. Proxies shall not be used at any meeting of the association, but they may be used in committee meetings.

SEC. 4. Notice of general meetings shall be given at least 4 months in advance and notice of local meetings at least 2 months in advance.

SEC. 5. The business of the association shall be transacted only at general meetings, and at such meetings 100 voting members of the association must be present to constitute a quorum.

ARTICLE VI

In the first election of officers held under the provisions of this constitution, said election occurring immediately after its adoption, all duly accredited active members of the Fourteenth Meeting of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf shall be entitled to vote, said members making payment of their membership fees to the treasurer at the earliest practicable opportunity after he shall have been elected.

ARTICLE VII. AMENDMENTS

This constitution may be amended by an affirmative vote of two-thirds of the members present at any general meeting of the association: *Provided*, That at such meeting at least 150 voting members of the association shall be present.

ARTICLE VIII

Devises and bequests may be worded as follows: "I give, devise, and bequeath to the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, for the promotion of the cause of the education of the deaf, in such manner as the standing executive committee thereof may direct," etc.; and if there be any conditions, and "subject to the following conditions, to wit:—"

REPORT OF THE PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

THIRTY-SECOND REGULAR MEETING OF THE CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF, HELD AT THE MISSOURI SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF, FULTON, MO., JUNE 23-27, 1941

MONDAY, JUNE 23

Registration, Main Office, Administration Building.

OPENING SESSION

Westminster College Gymnasium, 8 p. m.

Presiding: Dr. Clarence J. Settles, first vice president of the convention, and president, Florida School for the Deaf and the Blind, St. Augustine, Fla.

Music by the Fulton High School Band, under direction of Paul Strub.

Invocation: Rev. William H. Baudendistel.

The Star-Spangled Banner: Mrs. Boulware H. Jameson, William Woods College, Fulton, Mo., and accompanied in the language of signs by Mrs. G. C. Farquhar, Fulton, Mo.

ADDRESSES OF WELCOME

Truman L. Ingle, superintendent, Missouri School for the Deaf.

Hon. Frank Hensley, mayor of Fulton.

Hon. Grover C. Sparks, president, board of managers, Missouri School for the Deaf.

RESPONSES TO ADDRESSES OF WELCOME

East: Edmund B. Boatner, superintendent, American School for the Deaf at West Hartford, Conn.

West: Edwin G. Peterson, president, Montana School for the Deaf and Blind.

North: Leonard M. Elstad, superintendent, Minnesota School for the Deaf.

South: Dr. J. S. Ganey, superintendent, Alabama Institute for Deaf and Blind.

God Bless America, led by Mrs. W. Burton Moore, Fulton.

Address: The State's responsibility for social welfare, Rev. Wilbur D. Ruggles, rector, Grace Episcopal Church, Kirkwood, Mo.

Dr. SETTLES. The thirty-second regular meeting of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf will be in session. Before beginning our meeting this evening, I want to thank Professor Strub, and the members of the Fulton High School Band for the excellent program which they have rendered here this evening.

We will now rise and have the invocation by the Reverend Mr. William H. Baudendistel.

Invocation by Rev. William H. Baudendistel.

Dr. SETTLES. We will now have the national anthem, The Star-Spangled Banner, by Mrs. Boulware H. Jameson, director of music, William Woods College, Fulton, Mo. This solo will be signed by Mrs. G. C. Farquhar of the Missouri School for the Deaf.

The Star-Spangled Banner, Mrs. Boulware H. Jameson.

Dr. SETTLES. I hold in my hand a program which has been prepared by the program committee for this week's meetings. I would like a motion for its adoption as the official program.

Mr. BOATNER. Mr. Chairman, I move it be adopted.

(The motion was seconded, put, and carried.)

Dr. SETTLES. This will be the official program for this week's convention.

The business of keeping track of the papers and other business of a convention, such as this, is very arduous, so I am going to appoint two persons to assist Mr. Driggs, our secretary. I shall name Prof. Irving S. Fufeld of Gallaudet College, and Miss Dorothy Johnson of the Missouri School for the Deaf, to assist Mr. Driggs.

At this time I would like to have Secretary Driggs read a telegram from President Stevenson, who is ill. After he has read the telegram, I would like him to read greetings that President Stevenson has sent us. After he has completed that task, I would like him to read telegrams from Dr. Harris Taylor of New York and Dr. Frank M. Driggs of Ogden, Utah. These two men are past presidents of this organization. Mr. Driggs.

Mr. BURTON W. DRIGGS (reading):

To the officers, members, and guests of the Thirty-Second Regular Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, now in session:

Greetings and best wishes from your president.

I hope you will experience a most constructive, fruitful, and never-to-be-forgotten meeting this coming week. You have a just pride in the work already accomplished, and now face a very definite challenge in the days ahead.

I regret more than I can tell you to have to miss this convention, and to forego the pleasure and inspiration in contacting and exchanging words with you. You are fortunate. The convention and all of its arrangements are in capable hands. I am confident that everyone will have an enjoyable as well as a profitable week.

The program is one of the best ever to have been presented. You are enjoying the hospitality of a grand and efficient host. If the weather would only behave as it does in California, the combination of factors would spell for you a most glorious time ahead.

Keep in mind that there is still much to do to guarantee for the deaf children a certain degree of security for the future. Only through honest discussion, diligent efforts, and wise compromise, can definite goals be realized. There is no other field that offers so much opportunity for real service than the one in which you find yourselves. You have a greater responsibility and task as teachers and educators than any other body of workers in the field of education.

May kind Providence guide you in your thinking, in your planning, and in your decisions, all for the best interest of the deaf child, the child who has no voice in this matter, and who must sit by and silently accept that which we think is best for him. Do not fail him. Of all children, he needs the most attention and cannot stand too much experimentation. If you find something that is pedagogically sound and applicable, but contrary to your opinion, be big enough to divorce yourself from your mistaken opinion, and accept this other thought, if it means progress and security for the deaf child. Your opinion and its support are not the important objectives. The future welfare and happiness of the deaf child outweigh by far all personal opinion.

Therefore, get all you can from the daily deliberations, think clearly and independently through all discussions, work when there is work to be done, play when there is call for play, and, above all, get together finally as one for the ultimate good of the many handicapped children you serve.

With best wishes to you all, and with strong hopes for successful accomplishment in the years ahead, I am,

Very sincerely yours,

ELWOOD A. STEVENSON, *President.*

[Applause.]

(The secretary also read the following communication:)

DR. CLARENCE J. SETTLES: Unable to attend convention. Great disappointment. Terribly embarrassed not to assume responsibilities. Please understand. Following doctor's advice. Have profitable and worth-while week of discussion and deliberation, realize through constructive thinking and vision certain solutions to your several problems. Splendid program. Wonderful opportunity for service. Success, and happy findings.

Best wishes.

ELWOOD A. STEVENSON, *President.*

The SECRETARY. This is addressed to the president by Dr. Harris Taylor and was delivered to Vice President Settles:

Owing to an unexpected hospital incident I cannot be with you in person, but I shall always be with you in spirit.

HARRIS TAYLOR.

[Applause.]

The SECRETARY. This is addressed to Dr. Settles by Dr. Frank M. Driggs, Ogden, Utah:

Will you please convey to the members of the convention my sincere good wishes for a most successful meeting. My hope is that every day may be filled with joy and inspiration. My wish is that all of you will carry home huge bundles of ideas for improved leadership for every school for the deaf in America. May we always keep constantly in mind that it is our business as teachers to create for our pupils an atmosphere of learning.

Sincerely,

FRANK M. DRIGGS.

[Applause.]

MR. RANEY (Indiana). I move that our secretary send telegrams to these distinguished members recognizing their services for the past years and expressing appreciation for their greetings to this body.

(The motion was seconded, put, and carried.)

DR. SETTLES. At this time I would like to present our genial host, the capable and efficient superintendent of the Missouri School for the Deaf, who will bring you an address of welcome from that school, after which I will ask him to introduce the next two speakers. Mr. Ingle. [Applause.]

ADDRESSES OF WELCOME

MR. INGLE. His Excellency, Governor Donnell, of Missouri, has asked me to express to you his deep regret at being unable to be with you this evening; due to the vast amount of work that has been put upon him during the last few weeks he has found it absolutely necessary to cancel all engagements. He did, however, ask me to express to you the hope that you would enjoy your visit in Missouri, and that he wished me to express this welcome to you.

We of the Missouri School feel proud of the fact that we have you here as our guests. We hope that you will get everything that you want while you are in Missouri. Our teachers stand ready to serve at any time, and anyone who has the badge of host is here to serve you. Please do not hesitate to ask him or her for whatever you may desire.

At this time it is my privilege to present to you the mayor of Fulton, the Honorable Frank Hensley. [Applause.]

MR. HENSLEY. The day and the hour we Fultonians have looked forward to for almost a year has now arrived. Ever since the announcement was made that our city was to be honored as the host city for the thirty-second regular meeting of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, we have been planning to receive you as guests,

leaving not a stone unturned to see that your stay here during the week will be as comfortable and pleasant as possible and that you will return to your homes with kindest thoughts of your hours spent in Fulton on this occasion.

We citizens of Fulton feel that we have deeper sympathy and understanding of you in your work than most cities, first because we are a small city and have closer contact with our local instructors than the larger cities, then again we have several native sons who have gone out in the field as instructors and later headed State schools at various points throughout the United States and we have still scores of others who are successful teachers in this same work. In some cases we have the third generation carrying on the noble work started by our pioneers in this field of education.

I would like at this time to express my thanks to your committee for favoring Fulton with the 1941 convention and to assure you that we will put forth every effort to make your meeting a success in every way.

To mayors, addresses of welcome are very much the same but this one to me is different as I think this is one of the greatest conventions our city has ever had and I wish that I might adequately say what is in my heart to say. However, the hospitality of our citizens and the effort we are making to make your stay here a pleasant one should assure you that you are most welcome to Fulton. During your stay here nothing is too good for you. As our guests, we trust you will make yourselves comfortable. Our officers have been instructed to extend to you every courtesy and do everything possible to make your 1941 meeting a complete success and one that will leave only pleasant memories of Fulton and its citizens.

Without further ceremony it is my happy privilege as mayor of the city of Fulton to extend to you as our guests a most hearty official welcome. You will not need a key to the city as our latchstrings are out and our doors open to you who are here this week as our guests and it is our wish that your 1941 convention will be outstanding and bring pleasure and profit to you in the noble and glorious cause to which you have dedicated your lives. May God bless you and keep you with an understanding heart in your noble life work. [Applause.]

Mr. INGLE. It is now my privilege and pleasure to present to you a gentleman who is greatly interested in our work. He has been a member of our board of managers for several years, and is now serving as president of the board, the Honorable Grover C. Sparks.

Mr. SPARKS. It is indeed a pleasure and a privilege to appear here, and to extend this greeting. First, however, I want to present to you one of my coworkers, the dean of the board of managers of the Missouri School for the Deaf, a man of great sincerity in his work and whose efforts as a member of the board of managers to raise and to help the deaf is second to none, the Honorable Waldo F. Smith, of Fulton, lovingly called "Cap." [Applause.]

Ladies and gentlemen, we are indeed proud and happy that you have come to Missouri with your great convention. We are proud and the Missouri School for the Deaf takes great pride in being the host. I really wish that I could stay throughout the entire convention, because I know I met people this evening from Louisiana, from

New Mexico, from Montana, from North Dakota, and many other States, and I know that anyone who travels that far to attend a convention of this kind goes not for his own good, except that good that he or she may receive to help others.

I know that you are interested in this work, else you would not be here. You have a great profession, even greater than that of the public-school teacher, for you have the care and the custody and the training of the deaf boy and the deaf girl.

You are in that work because you love it. You are underpaid—Mr. Ingle, you are not supposed to listen to this—all of your salaries ought to be raised. [Applause.] I wish they could be. But, after all, services, true services, are not measured with paltry gold and silver. There is a higher reward that some day will come to each and every one of you, a reward for a duty well done, for a privilege and for a joy which each and every one of you has in your chosen work.

I want also to tell you that His Excellency, Forrest C. Donnell, Governor of Missouri, in his office today, told me to tell you also how sorry he was that he could not be here, and to carry to you his appreciation for the work which you were doing, not only in the State of Missouri, of which he is Governor, but he had in mind each and every State represented here.

The whole city of Fulton and the whole State of Missouri are hosts for you, and we want to do everything that we can to make your stay pleasant and with the hope that when you will go home you will do so with the feeling that you are glad that you came to Missouri. I thank you. [Applause.]

RESPONSES TO ADDRESSES OF WELCOME

Dr. SETTLES. We will now have the responses to these splendid addresses of welcome. The first one will be given by Mr. Edmund B. Boatner, superintendent of the American School for the Deaf at West Hartford, Conn. Mr. Boatner will respond for the East.

Mr. BOATNER. Mr. President, members of the convention, and guests, it is my pleasure to convey to you the greetings of the East together with best wishes for a successful and productive meeting. Our privilege of meeting in this fine school with Mr. Ingle as our host will, I am sure, go a long way toward making that a reality.

As I look over this gathering tonight, and this large group of teachers of the deaf, representing schools all over the United States and Canada, I cannot help but wish that Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet, the founder of our school, and the pioneer educator of the deaf in America, could be here for the occasion. What gratification it would give him to see the progress that has been made since his humble beginning in Hartford in 1817. We have made progress—there is no doubt of it, but we can never rest on our laurels because there is so much yet to be done.

Finally, I believe we could not do better in our educational procedures than to adopt the motto or slogan of this fine State, which is "Show me." It would be well for us to have this attitude and apply it to all educational practices and theories and require that we

be shown results, first, last, and always. It has been a great pleasure for me to speak to you, and I wish to again extend our greetings and best wishes for a most successful meeting.

Dr. SETTLES. The next response will be by Mr. Edwin G. Peterson, president of the Montana School for the Deaf and Blind. He will bring greetings from the West.

Mr. PETERSON. Dr. Settles, Mayor Hensley, distinguished guests, ladies and gentlemen, when Dr. Settles wrote to me to appear on this program I was delighted to hear from him. The State of Florida provides him with a beautiful letterhead, across the top of which is printed "State of Florida." In the upper left-hand corner is the great seal of the State and directly beneath it are printed these words, "In God We Trust Clarence J. Settles."

Before I left home my young son observed me looking over maps and remarking on the distance it was necessary to travel. When I spoke of the number of States I would cross, he said, "Why daddy, Missouri is right next to Montana." In my very best school teacher's manner and with fatherly indulgence, I patiently got out the atlas and showed him a map, pointing out the other States. Unsatisfied, he turned to the back page of the atlas and showed me an alphabetical list of the States and remarked, "Here Montana is next to Missouri." But there is a close connection between our States, for a great life line connects the Commonwealths. It is the great Missouri River which originates at Three Forks, Mont. In the early part of the nineteenth century prospectors used to go by steamboat from St. Louis to Fort Benton, Mont., with their tools and paraphernalia. Then they would send their gold back down the river. That is why Missouri is so rich and Montana so poor. This great river also provides irrigation for your fertile acres and some fine Montana soil drifts down to make your crops grow.

We are glad to be in this typically American community. The June 7 issue of the Saturday Evening Post gave space to a description of Henry Shaw's Tower Grove Gardens in St. Louis, typical of the American's love for beauty. Near this scene is Hannibal, Mo., the place immortalized in Mark Twain's work, and what more American literature is there than this? Life Magazine recently wrote up the town of Neosho, Mo., which it described as an American community. Quoting, the article stated, "Here, perhaps more than in any other place, the spirit of America dwells." And from Neosho has come typically American art, produced by Thomas Benton.

Those assembled here are engaged in a profession that seeks to make good citizens of those enrolled in our schools. Can we not say we come as pilgrims to a shrine, seeking by the exchange of ideas and social fellowship to be renewed in spirit, a spirit that will help us in a task which though old, is still just beginning?

Speaking for the West, may I thank Superintendent Ingle and his fellow workers for their fine hospitality. In this connection may I refer to the parishioner who was entertaining the minister for dinner. Following the dessert which consisted of excellent pie, no comment was forthcoming from the pastor. Her curiosity aroused, the housewife inquired why the pastor had been so generous in his praise when he had come before and when the pie was not good, and why he had remained silent this time when the pie was excellent. In reply the

minister said, "My dear parishioner, this pie needs no defense; it speaks for itself."

Dr. SETTLES. The next response will be by Mr. Leonard M. Elstad, superintendent of the Minnesota School for the Deaf. He will render the response for the North.

Mr. ELSTAD. Although I am third in this business of giving a response, I wish, Mr. President, to offer greetings from the North in threefold quantity and quality. This may seem a difficult thing to do inasmuch as those who have preceded me have said most of the fine things.

Recently, when I was in St. Paul, I spoke to my superior officer about this convention. He doesn't like conventions very well. He feels that people can better read the papers and digest them carefully at leisure at home and get much more from them. I don't agree with him. I told him that our work is spread out over the whole of the United States. We have to get together once in a while, just as a football team does to have its huddle. Why does the team have this huddle system? The players know what the plays are. In olden days numbers were called off for each play but that wasn't very satisfactory. Now, instead of calling numbers the team members get their heads together and discuss what the plays are going to be. In this way they get the spirit and fellowship. They then go out into the line and strike quickly for what they hope will be touchdowns.

This is just about what we are up against. Our line is spread over the whole United States. We have to get together once in a while, so we can get ideas from each other and then spread out to different parts of the country where we carry these ideas into practice. I think this is a very important consideration.

We from the North are glad to be here. We from Minnesota are especially glad to be here. Mr. Tate, our superintendent for many years, came from the Missouri School for the Deaf. He made a splendid record, and brought with him Miss Pollard, who also worked with him during the 30 years he was there. We have named two of our buildings in their honor; one is Tate Hall and the other is Pollard Hall. We are very glad to be here and pay tribute to this fine State of Missouri. We have enjoyed everything you have provided thus far, and are looking forward to what you are going to do for us. I want to thank you for everything you are doing.

Dr. SETTLES. The next response will be by Dr. J. S. Ganey, superintendent of the Alabama Institute for the Deaf and Blind. He will bring the response from the South.

Dr. GANEY. Mr. President, ladies, and gentlemen, the purpose which brings us together in the thirty-second meeting of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf is that we may counsel together on some of the many problems connected with deafness to the end that further progress may be made to minify the deaf man's handicap and magnify and multiply his chances for service and happiness.

I think there are three areas of endeavor in this important matter of alleviating deafness: Prevention, instruction, and employment.

I believe no program of education for the deaf is complete which omits serious consideration of prevention of deafness. There are hundreds of children in our institutions for the deaf who in my

opinion should never have been deaf. Many of the diseases which cause deafness can with intelligent care be either avoided or else their effects on children can be reduced to the minimum by proper care. We superintendents have on file in our offices the data giving the causes for deafness. Every mother should know the simple precautions to be taken against such diseases as poliomyelitis, diphtheria, measles, and influenza. The teacher of the deaf and the doctor should collaborate with the patron in preventing the spread and reducing the hazards of these and other deafness-producing diseases. The public is entitled to the data in our possession and it is our responsibility to furnish it.

The second area, that of instruction, is the especial field of this convention. Our chief consideration here is to find the most approved and improved methods of instruction and to learn what subjects can most wisely be incorporated in the curricula of our institutions. We must fit these handicapped children not only for life but also for living.

I mentioned employment. The factory whose product would not be acceptable with the public would soon become bankrupt. I maintain we have cause for concern as long as we are not able to sell the services of our graduates to the public. I believe our responsibility to our pupils does not end on graduation day. I think we should be content only when these pupils have become gainfully employed. There is much room for improvement here.

Mr. President, the cordial greetings and gracious hospitality which have been so eloquently extended us tonight strike a responsive chord on the hearts of the visitors from the South. We have come to listen, to learn, and to contribute anything we can to the common good of this convention. We are glad to be in this great Commonwealth and here at this splendid school. We appreciate the many expressions of welcome and assure you that we are most happy to be your guests.

Dr. SETTLES. The audience will please rise and join in singing God Bless America, which will be led by Mrs. W. Burton Moore.

(Song, God Bless America.)

Dr. SETTLES. The next number on the program will be the main address of the evening. It will be given by a gentleman who was for several years a resident of Jefferson City. During the time he was the pastor of the Episcopal Church there he became acquainted with officials and the children of the Missouri School for the Deaf, and was greatly interested in them. While his profession is that of minister, he is greatly interested in the development of boys and girls. He does a great deal of work for them, and he does a great deal of civic work. He particularly has been interested in Boys' State, that great project for boys developed and carried on by the American Legion.

It is with a great deal of pleasure that I present at this time the Reverend Wilbur D. Ruggles, rector of Grace Church, Kirkwood, Mo., who will address us on the subject, The State's Responsibility for a Program of Social Welfare.

THE STATE'S RESPONSIBILITY FOR SOCIAL WELFARE

(The Reverend WILBUR D. RUGGLES, Rector, Grace Church, Kirkwood)

In a recent biography of Daniel Boone the story is told of an occasion when Boone was in this State and a Missourian asked him if he "had ever been lost." Daniel shook his head and replied, "No, I was never lost, but I was once bewildered for 3 days."

Troubled as most Americans are by the trend of events and the amazing paradoxes of contemporary history, it is easy for us to understand Boone's words for, while we are not ready to admit we are lost, we are often bewildered.

To push the analogy one step further, the going may be difficult but the direction in which we ought to move is clear. We seek to preserve the measure of democracy we have and to realize more of it.

We are especially clear on one thing: we must not lose one foot of the ground won in the struggle for social betterment and human understanding here in America.

What a tragedy it would be if fears for our national safety caused us to lose sight of the need for social security. This is not likely to happen if our social changes and achievements are appreciated fully and the need for furthering them adequately comprehended.

There is an old expression "What you don't know won't hurt you." As Ralph Barton Perry has suggested, "It was a man, and not an ostrich, who invented that dictum and the truth is the precise opposite." If a man starts out to drive a car ignorant of the meaning of red lights, traffic lines, and stop signs, "what he doesn't know" is apt to hurt him very much. Ignorance of our social problems might prove costly. If our social gains are to be preserved, Americans must be both well informed and eternally vigilant.

Americans today are seeking the same ends in life as the earliest colonists—*independence*, a chance to labor for themselves and their children, and an equal opportunity for all. The ends are the same but the manner in which they must be met is vastly different.

In the earliest American home the musket hanging over the fireplace was an assurance of security. It provided game for the pot and protection from unfriendly beasts and Indians.

Probably no families in the world's history ever have been as self-reliant as these early Americans. They literally made their own living. They had to and they did. A large family was not a problem but a blessing. It meant more hands to plant, weed, harvest, cook, spin, dye, and sew. Indeed, we are told that a widow with nine children was considered a matrimonial prize. Times have changed!

Life in America was much like that for nearly 250 years, yet that picture is as foreign to us as the life of the Chinese laborers in The Good Earth. True, the many gabled houses of New England, the old farm houses with added rooms and wings for the expanding family are still to be seen. Likewise, the old post roads of the colonies and the western trails are still used. But what a gulf there is between the man on horseback, or the family in the covered wagon, using those roads 75 years ago, and the speeding motorcars of today! Every schoolboy knows that, but what he does not always

realize is that the American family's way of living has changed even more radically.

Let me cite some figures given by Mary Ross of the Bureau of Research and Statistics:

In 1891 one-third of the families in America lived on farms and, because of large families, they made up one-half of our population. By 1920 the balance had swung the other way.

In 1930 one-fifth of the families lived on farms and made up but one-fourth of the total population. In less than a generation we ceased to be a predominantly rural people.

Further, in 1810 the farms had one-half of the workers but by 1930 they had only one-fifth of the same.

Where were the others? At the centers of population as part of the growing number of restaurant workers, elevator operators, doctors, lawyers, librarians, dentists, nurses, actors, teachers, engineers, authors, etc. Note: Many of these were tasks once performed within the family itself, while others were new vocations due to the rising standards of living.

The early Americans literally made their living. We do not; we buy it.

Money to the early colonists was scarce and used only for luxuries such as furniture, tea, and spice. Here are a few words from the diary of an early New England farmer:

My farm gave me and my whole family a good living on the produce of it and left me, one year and another, one hundred and fifty dollars, for I never spent more than ten dollars a year, which was for salt, nails, and the like. Nothing to eat, drink, or wear was bought, as my farm produced it all.

Today the modern farmer needs money if he is to own the tools and machines with which to buy a living.

Our way of living and the ways of securing a living have changed in this democracy of ours and Americans must keep this in mind. Our goals are the same but must be reached along new paths. The security and independence of the early American family have gone for good. We have been a little late in realizing this and millions have suffered needlessly. Old people, like children, have lost their economic value to the average American home. Unemployment has become a major problem. Incidentally, the word itself has been in the English dictionary only 54 years.

Society recognized its responsibility for social welfare to a limited degree long ago. Even primitive tribes had protective rules and customs. The early American families helped one another in times of trouble. Then, as villages, towns, and cities multiplied, police, fire, and health protection followed. This was the State meeting its social responsibility in a rudimentary manner. But it was done primarily for selfish reasons. Then came a growing concern for the afflicted or handicapped, but it took a long time to achieve notable results in this direction. For example, Girolamo Cardano was calling attention to the need for providing education for the deaf in the sixteenth century. But over three centuries passed before the Gallaudets began to demonstrate the wisdom of such education here in America. Society, or the State, is usually lax in measuring up to its social responsibility.

Within the last decade we have seen much improvement and the State has adopted unemployment compensation, aid to the aged and

dependent, direct relief, and many other measures to assist American families in need. This legislation represents progress in democracy.

This is the factual history in outline of the State's responsibility for social welfare in America. But factual knowledge is not enough.

Consider the problem of direct relief to needy families. Some will read statistics on human need and will remain unmoved. Somehow the plight of the less fortunate must be dramatized for them. Let me illustrate what I have in mind. A young man prepared to vote for the first time may feel, on the basis of a course in elementary economics, that he is qualified to judge in the matter of the State's responsibility for social welfare. He may be, but understanding implies that he has put himself in the place of the needy before forming conclusions.

When Marie Antoinette was in flight from Paris the royal coach was compelled to halt overnight near the border. The family was invited to accept the hospitality of a very humble family. Once inside Marie is reported to have said, "You know this is the first time I ever crossed a baker's threshold." The moral is clear. If the once popular queen had crossed more thresholds early in her reign, she would have understood her people and their problems better and Paris might have been spared its bath of blood.

All good Americans must, in practice or in imagination, cross thresholds into the areas of life which are unfamiliar to them. Once they understand the problem they must be firm in their resolution to see that justice is done.

I know well how difficult it is today to interest some Americans in our social problems when they are deeply concerned over international crises. Not a few good causes have suffered already because of the paralyzing fears and pessimism which hold many in their grip.

Nevertheless, history is made by those who make up their minds. The program for social welfare must be carried on. We, too, are going to be filled with concern over the trend of events—perhaps bewildered—but let us be clear in our determination not to sacrifice any of the gains already made in the direction of social security and human betterment here in America. Let us be forthright in our resolution to keep democracy working at home whatever happens abroad. [Applause.]

Dr. SETTLES. I hope that tomorrow we can hold as closely to the schedule as we have held tonight. We planned an hour and a half program, and we carried it out to the minute.

Tomorrow the meetings will be held over at the school, starting with the demonstrations from 9 to 9:50; section meetings from 10 to 10:50. All of the places where the demonstrations and sections will meet are clearly marked, so you will have no difficulty finding them.

The meeting will now stand adjourned until tomorrow morning.

TUESDAY, JUNE 24, 1941

DEMONSTRATIONS, 9-9:50 A. M.

Arithmetic: Primary arithmetic, Mary Bach, Florida School for the Deaf and the Blind; advanced arithmetic, Bessie L. Pugh, Florida School for the Deaf and the Blind.

Art: Beginning art, Maria R. Kaufmann, Central Institute for the Deaf.

Auricular training: Mrs. Harvey B. Barnes, Illinois School for the Deaf.

Language: Steps in teaching direct and indirect discourse, Enfield Joiner, St. Mary's School for the Deaf; straight language, M. Adelaide Coffey, West Virginia Schools for the Deaf and Blind.

Preschool and kindergarten: Margaret Scyster, Illinois School for the Deaf.

Reading: Story telling to primary children, Sister Anna Rose, St. Joseph's School, Missouri; history as an aid to pleasure reading, Sister Anna Rose.

Rhythm: Beginning work, Honora Carroll and Virginia Hammond, Gallaudet School, St. Louis, Mo.

Speech: Josephine Avondino, A. G. Bell School, Chicago, Ill.

Visual education: First-year pupils, Mabel Gulick, Kansas School for the Deaf.

Section meeting of deaf teachers: Reading with the metronoscope, G. C. Farquhar, Missouri School for the Deaf.

SECTION MEETINGS, 10-10:50 A. M.

SUPERVISION

Leader: Sarah E. Lewis, head teacher, primary department, Beverly School, Beverly, Mass.; chairman, Harry L. Welty, principal, Nebraska School.

Paper: Purposes in Education, Florence M. Sundstrom, Indiana School; Discussion, E. S. Foltz, Kansas School.

Paper: A Reading Approach to Language, Rachel Dawes Davies, Central Institute; discussion, William M. Milligan, Colorado School.

PRESCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN

Leader: Virginia Rosser, Gough School, San Francisco, Calif.; chairman, Lloyd E. Berg, superintendent, Iowa School.

Discussion: In considering the possible value of preschool training, is the important question whether there is an acceleration of academic learning around the age of 10, or whether there is a diminution of adjustment problems, D. T. Cloud, managing officer, Illinois School.

Paper: Do We Teach Speech as a Means or an End? William L. Fair, principal, Kansas School.

SPEECH DEVELOPMENT

Leader: Jennie M. Henderson, principal, Horace Mann School for the Deaf.

Paper: Speech as Conducted at Central Institute, Rachel Dawes Davies, Central Institute, St. Louis, Mo.

Paper: Beginning Speech Training for Four- and Five-Year-Old Deaf Children, Priscilla Pittenger, A. G. Bell School, Chicago, Ill.

Paper: The Place of Elements Teaching in Speech Development—Is the Cart Before the Horse? Mary E. Numbers, teacher in charge, middle school, Clarke School, Northampton, Mass.

AURICULAR TRAINING AND RHYTHM

Leader: Marshall S. Hester, supervising teacher, advanced department, California School; chairman, Richard G. Brill, principal, Virginia School.

Paper: Group Hearing Aids Must Answer Individual Needs, June Yale Probyn, supervising teacher, primary department, American School, West Hartford, Conn.

Discussion: Glenn I. Harris, head teacher, advanced department, Colorado School; Blanche Evans, Kansas School.

CURRICULUM CONTENT

Leader: Roy G. Parks, principal, Georgia School.

Paper: Hearing Aids in the Curriculum, E. S. Tillinghast, superintendent, Arizona School.

Discussion: Elizabeth S. Dunlap, Rochester, N. Y.

Paper: Speech and Speech Reading in the Intermediate Department, Juliet A. McDermott, Georgia School.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Leader: Dr. Tom L. Anderson, principal, vocational department, Iowa School; chairman, Arthur G. Norris, vocational principal, Missouri School.

Theme: What of the Future?

Subject: A Need and a Plan for Its Solution.

Panel discussion: Dr. Tom L. Anderson, vocational principal, Iowa School; Harvey B. Barnes, vocational supervisor, Illinois School; Dewey Coats, instructor in woodworking, Missouri School; Charles B. Grow, vocational principal, Kentucky School; Glenn I. Harris, supervising teacher, industrial department, Colorado School; Paul Kinder, State supervisor, vocational rehabilitation, Missouri; Howard M. Quigley, superintendent, Kansas School; Lang Russel, vocational principal, Louisiana School; Carl F. Smith, vocational principal, Minnesota School; Robert E. Thomas, specialist, United States Office of Education; and Arthur G. Norris, vocational principal, Missouri School, presiding.

SOCIAL AND CHARACTER TRAINING

Leader: Rae Martino, Waterbury, Conn., chairman; Alfred Cranwill, principal, Michigan School.

Address: Character Education, Harley Z. Wooden, superintendent, Michigan School.

Panel discussion: Lillian R. Jones, principal, primary department, Louisiana School; Lula B. Highsmith, Florida School; W. Burton Moore, Missouri School; John A. Gough, superintendent, Oklahoma School; Boyce R. Williams, vocational principal, Indiana School.

Paper, A Tool for Cultivation of Character, Boyce R. Williams.

ART

Leader: Geneva B. Llewellyn, Wisconsin School.

Paper: Correlating Art With the School Curriculum, Edith Jordan, Illinois School.

Paper: Beginning Art, Maria R. Kaufmann, Central Institute.

SECTION FOR DEAF TEACHERS

Leader: G. C. Farquhar, Missouri School.

Paper: Integration of Extra Activities Into the Curriculum, Nathan Zimble, principal, Arkansas School.

Discussion: John G. O'Brien, Indiana School, D. H. Wenger, Utah School.

GENERAL SESSION, TUESDAY, JUNE 24, 11 A. M.

Presiding: Dr. Ignatius Bjorlee, superintendent, Maryland School.

Greetings: The Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, Dr. Percival Hall, president; National Forum on Deafness and Speech Pathology, Margaret Scyster, Illinois School; Council of Teachers of the Deaf and the Hard of Hearing, in Public Schools, Jennie M. Henderson, president; The National Association of the Deaf, Dr. Tom L. Anderson, president; the American Association To Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, D. T. Cloud, managing officer, Illinois School.

President's address: The School of Tomorrow, Elwood A. Stevenson, president of the convention.

GENERAL SESSION, TUESDAY, JUNE 24, 2 P. M.

Presiding: Dr. Carl E. Rankin, superintendent, North Carolina School.

Address: New Frontiers in the Education of the Deaf, S. Richard Silverman, Central Institute.

Paper: An Evaluation of a Preschool Program, Sister Rose Alice, St. Mary's School.

Paper: Testing of Hearing by Acoustic Reflexes, Dr. Augusta Jellinek, New York City.

Paper: Evaluating an Auricular Program, Margaret Bodycomb, dean, Pennsylvania School.

3-5 p. m.: Tea for superintendents' and principals' wives, Fulton Country Club.

4:30 p. m.: Special meeting, Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf.

4:30 p. m.: Meeting, the Council of Teachers of the Deaf and the Hard of Hearing in Public Schools.

6 p. m.: Dinner, Gallaudet College Alumni.

GENERAL SESSION, 8 P. M.

Presiding: Victor O. Skyberg, superintendent, New York School.

Violin solo: Mrs. Elmer Henderson, Jr., accompanied by Mrs. Cleo H. Stratton.

Address: The Place of Language in Mental Development, Dr. Theo. W. H. Irion, dean, School of Education, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.

Paper and demonstration: A Leisure-Time Activity, Dr. A. L. Brown, superintendent, Colorado School.

SUPERVISION

Leader: Sarah E. Lewis, head teacher, primary department, Beverly School, Beverly, Mass.; chairman, Harry L. Welty, principal, Nebraska School.

Paper: Purposes in Education, Florence M. Sundstrom, Indiana School; discussion, E. S. Foltz, Kansas School.

Paper: A Reading Approach to Language, Rachel Dawes Davies, Central Institute; discussion, William M. Milligan, Colorado School.

PURPOSES IN EDUCATION

(FLORENCE MARIE SUNDSTROM, primary supervising teacher, Indiana School)

Since many of the duties as well as the problems of the supervising teacher vary in different schools, I have tried to choose a subject which is of a more general nature and, therefore, may be of interest to a greater number. Keeping in mind the general theme of the convention—Molding Educational Opportunities for the Deaf for the World of Tomorrow With the Tools of Today—probably the subject of purposes or aims which we as teachers propose and set up for the various units of work our pupils must cover has as much bearing on the theme as any I could choose.

We presume everyone has some kind of philosophy of life, a point of view, a way of evaluating the fundamental issues of life. Such a set of values enables the individual to give direction and purpose to his activities and to unify his experiences so as to give them meaning. In like manner, a teacher needs a sound philosophy of education which will enable him or her to evaluate educational theories and practices. In fact, one of the most important things about any teacher is the kind of philosophy of education he or she has accepted, for a teacher who has not accepted a fairly consistent philosophy that includes the whole of life cannot be considered an adequate leader. Teachers too often emphasize subject matter—a certain number of units of work to be completed in a specified time, certain books to be read—all of which is merely the means to an end. Education has no real meaning except as it applies to life.

As teachers, our work is to teach—and one definition of the words "to teach" is "to cause another to learn." Since education involves changes in an individual, one may also define teaching as "causing desirable changes in another person." We know that there is no teach-

ing without learning, but obviously there can be learning without teaching. When left alone, a child learns from the various experiences in his exploration of the world. It is the duty of the teacher to arrange new and challenging situations, to arouse new interests, and to help the child avoid the errors he would make without proper guidance. This selected environment should provide the experiences necessary for the child's education.

If learning is to be effective, the child must have an interest in what he is learning, and it is not possible for him to be interested in something for which he can see no purpose. Therefore, all school activities must be so presented and conducted that they will be both desirable and interesting. Needless to say, the greater the interest in the work, the greater will be the effort expended. The type of motivation to be used will vary with the age of the pupil. With the very young child, whose experiences are limited, a different type of appeal is necessary, for young children are interested only in that for which there is an immediate need.

Dr. Thomas H. Briggs, in his book, *Improving Instruction*, says, "To insure more adequate learning on the part of the pupil, there should be a worthy, definite, and specific purpose for each unit of work." Let us consider this statement for a moment: A purpose, to be worthy, must conform with an accepted philosophy of education. To be worthy, an activity must do more than impart knowledge. It must insure that, through this knowledge, the children will learn to better fulfill their duties as citizens, or to live together with greater social effectiveness—in other words, the knowledge must apply to life.

We can readily agree that a teacher's purpose should be definite. If it is not definite, and if the desired objective is not clearly indicated, much confusion and loss of time are sure to result. In each period of work a definite goal should be reached. It may, of course, be only a small part of the whole, but it should be attained during a given period. Before a child can solve a problem in arithmetic it is necessary that he has mastered the various processes needed. Each process is a definite goal to be attained.

If the purpose can be specifically adapted to a particular learning situation, it then becomes a motivated purpose; therefore, whenever possible, the teacher's purpose should be specific. As teachers we know that there is never a more opportune time to teach anything than when the pupil needs it and realizes his need.

Some very common aims or purposes often stated by teachers are: "To teach pupils to know * * *" or "To drill on * * *." While it is true that there is no real education without knowledge, yet merely to know is not enough. Many scholars have been rich in knowledge but poor in citizenship, all because they could put their knowledge to no good use. Too often teachers ask themselves, "Will this step help my pupils to pass the necessary examination?" instead of asking "Will this step help my pupils cultivate tastes and interests which will enrich their personalities and, in turn, help them to become better and more effective citizens?" How much more interesting and educational geography becomes when it centers around the people of a country rather than around the mountains, oceans, and industries! The same can be said for science, too, when it becomes the means of gaining better control of the forces which aid society rather

than merely a collection of dry facts; and for languages when they give the pupil an introduction to interesting people about whom they know little, rather than mere pages of exercises in verb conjugations.

The theory of education has changed greatly during the past century. We no longer believe in teaching any subject for its transfer values, nor do we believe in the theory of disciplining the mind. The newer philosophy of education believes that youth should be enlightened about its own education and should understand and approve of its goals. Just as it is necessary for the teacher to have worthy purposes, so it is necessary for the pupils to understand and accept them—and often pupils have very good purposes of their own to suggest. Children study for various reasons and, more often than we realize, it is because of some external pressure rather than a keen, live interest in the activity itself. If the child understands the teacher's objective, and if he feels a need or a desire to participate, he will work cheerfully and intelligently, and not merely because he feels it is necessary in order to be promoted at the end of the year.

One very important task of the teacher is to create new needs. While pupils recognize many of their own needs, still they are not in themselves sufficient. The teacher must reveal new and higher needs and make them desirable. Truly great is the teacher who has the ability to sell her purposes to the pupils by making them attractive. We are all familiar with some of the traditional aims offered by teachers when pupils have asked why they must study this or that particular subject. The most familiar is that of the Spanish teacher who told her pupils they should learn Spanish in case they might want to go into business in South America. In my own case, when I could see no good reason for studying geometry, the teacher told me I should know geometry in case I should ever want to make patterns! It is needless to say that pupils do not accept such purposes, but merely do as they are told because of the temporary extrinsic pressure.

The advantages gained from purposeful study are many. It trains the pupils in self reliance, initiative, and interest; it gives valuable education in the discovery of means; it will be an incentive for work, since many pupils spend more time in getting out of work than in doing it and probably because more inventive genius is needed in avoiding it; it will train pupils to work intelligently and not to do whatever is assigned without rhyme or reason; it results in more economical learning, for when we learn for a definite purpose it takes a shorter time to learn it; and, finally, most important of all, it improves both the attitude and procedure of the teacher.

It is the important function of the supervising teacher to help the teachers plan definite objectives for each lesson. More effective teaching will naturally result if teachers keep this in mind when planning their work. It will lead teachers to evaluate carefully all materials in outlines and textbooks, and to find new materials and methods when needed. Just how can we help teachers to seek worth-while purposes? First: By making our own purposes attractive and acceptable to the teacher, for it is just as important that we sell our purposes to the teacher as it is for the teacher to sell hers to the pupil. Second: By helping the teacher realize to what extent her plans do not have worthy, definite, and specific purposes. Third: By helping the teacher to apply this theory to her daily work. It is relatively simple to get one to approve of an ideal, but it is a never-ending task

to help one put this ideal into constant practice. It is a difficult challenge at which we must constantly work. Explanation and justification of purposeful teaching can be made by a number of means. Group meetings in which various units of work are discussed are very effective, as are demonstration lessons and directed observation. And we must not forget the most effective of all—praise for successful effort.

Teachers must be ever mindful of the fact that both subject matter and method should be adapted to the peculiar characteristics of each group of pupils. The lesson plans which may prove successful with one group may need considerable modification for another group with different needs and interests. Environment, interest, and needs must always be considered. However, there are always suggestions a supervisor may make to teachers which will make for more effective teaching in any class; and one of the best suggestions we can make is that the teacher, after planning any unit of work, asks herself or himself these questions—First: Do I have a purpose that is worthy, definite, and as nearly as possible specific to the needs of my class? Second: Will it arouse a feeling of need? Third: Am I well enough informed as to the outside interests and needs of my pupils? Fourth: Will this unit of work call forth originality and inventiveness on the part of the pupils? Fifth: Am I always open to suggestions made by the pupils? Sixth: Do I make the pupils realize that careful planning leads to economical results? Seventh: Do I encourage the pupils to share in making plans for the next recitation? Eighth: Have I devised any method by which the pupils can measure their growth in the education they have approved for themselves?

As supervisors, the question we must ask ourselves is, "Have I helped the teachers to plan lessons which will cause the pupils to cultivate tastes and interests that will enrich their personalities and help them to become better and more effective citizens?" If we can answer this question in the affirmative, then we can feel assured that we have contributed to the true purpose of education.

A DISCUSSION OF MISS SUNDSTROM'S PAPER

(EDWARD S. FOLTZ, Kansas School)

Miss Sundstrom's paper is well written; it shows a careful, thoughtful and, thorough study of her subject. Due to the limited time at our disposal my discussion must, by necessity, be brief. Consequently, a few of the more important everyday problems dealing principally with the advanced and intermediate departments will be considered. Miss Sundstrom has covered the primary department so well there is no need to elaborate on it further.

We must agree with Miss Sundstrom that purposeful study teaches self-reliance and initiative. However, some studies, especially arithmetic texts, which have answers to the problems inserted in the back, are more of a detriment than an aid in achieving the true purpose of the book. Arithmetic is studied in order to build up some degree of self-confidence and self-reliance. The pupil is expected to develop ability to think and to reason. We often notice pupils peering into the answers before any actual figuring has been accomplished. There is where all the good intended from the study of the book goes glimmering. I once became so disgusted with a certain text that I collected

all the books and promptly applied the shears to the section containing the answers. I later heard that another teacher threw up her hands in holy horror when she saw what she termed wanton destruction of State property. I am still convinced that I did the right thing, for at present 6 members of this class of 10 are now enjoying the privilege of receiving higher education at Gallaudet College. If answers must be included, they should come in pamphlet form and be in the hands of the instructor only.

Algebra may be made very interesting to an otherwise skeptical class of pupils which thinks there is apparently no good reason for the study of such a subject. During my 25 years as an instructor of this particular branch of mathematics I have frequently been asked by pupils what benefit is derived from the study of algebra. My answer has invariably been the same. I ask the pupils why they go to the gymnasium; why they practise on the athletic field. The usual response is: "To build up strong and healthy bodies."

"Would not a walk serve the same purpose?" I suavely inquire.

"Oh, yes, but there would be no fun and besides it is too common—too easy—no real muscular exertion is required and no competition is offered," or words to that effect, they tell me.

I gently suggest that algebra is what builds up strong and healthy minds, and moreover, to understand it well, requires concentrated mental gymnastics. "It is a challenge to you students. It prepares you to be able to render sound reasoning and to reach logical conclusions to important and perplexing problems which are sure to confront you outside of school. You will no longer appear helpless. Do you not see the purpose behind it all?"

Once the purpose has been demonstrated the difficulty in teaching any subject is at least half solved.

We must admit Miss Sundstrom is correct when she assumes that the most effective means by which supervising teachers may obtain the best results from their teachers is to praise them for successful efforts. To us adults praise is greater than material reward. We know our reward comes in the form of regular monthly pay checks; it is a matter of course. Praise, in this instance, is therefore the more appreciated.

But to youngsters a reward is greater than praise. Would not the schools for the deaf be better able to carry out the purpose in education if we could reward pupils by granting exemption from examinations to those whose daily average in scholastic work is above a fixed standard? This is the usual procedure in public schools. Why not in ours?

The most frequently advanced reason for not carrying out such a plan to reward our children is that it entails additional work for the supervisors, counselors, and house mothers. Cannot some arrangement be made in the intermediate and advanced departments whereby this omnipresent obstacle may be eradicated? Would not the anticipation of exemption from examinations be an excellent incentive for more careful study? The deaf child, as you all know, is ever eager and appreciative of a reward.

Years ago we heard much about "fitting the method to the child and not the child to the method." Apparently there is no need for such a battle cry today. Educators have recognized its worth and have acted accordingly.

Perhaps a little paraphrasing of this slogan today would make it more fittingly serve the purpose of education. A better and more appropriate slogan might be, "fitting the teacher to the class; not the class to the teacher." Some teachers simply cannot come down to the level of the class to which they are assigned and consequently "shoot over the heads" of the children in the class. The supervising teachers have here splendid, as well as precious, opportunities to carry out the purpose in education by giving thoughtful consideration to both angles when making assignments of classes to teachers.

There is another phase in our school life, I believe, where one of the purposes in education is seriously hindered. It is the teaching of thrift. The free distribution of pencils and paper in the classrooms certainly has its bad as well as its good sides. On one we encounter the difficulty of stressing economy. Lost pencils and utter disregard for the way scratch paper fills the waste baskets are problems with which we teachers have to contend. The pupils know they will be given another pencil or additional paper, else they will have a bona fide excuse for being unable to do any written work.

Soon after I entered the profession, I was privileged to witness an innovation whereby each pupil had to pay for individual pencils and paper, but the experiment apparently was not feasible. It resulted in an alarming number of disappearing pencils and of much paper from among the children. The plan to curb one evil only led to a worse one, so of the two evils, the school authorities wisely chose the lesser.

It is evident that we have in our State schools, which for the major part, are boarding schools, many unusual conditions. These naturally tend to make our tasks all the more laborious. However, frequent convention meetings such as this ably serve as an inspiration for us to put forth even greater efforts in the future.

A READING APPROACH TO LANGUAGE

(Mrs. RACHEL DAWES DAVIES, Central Institute for the Deaf)

Language is a twofold problem—the problem of comprehension and the problem of correct usage. No arguments are needed to persuade the teacher of the deaf that specific and direct teaching is necessary in helping her pupils to use language correctly and effectively in expressing their own ideas. That the same careful preparation and provision for practice are needed in helping her pupils to comprehend the ideas of others, as expressed in various language constructions, and that this should precede the teaching of language for use, is not so clear. Of course, in order to use language, it must first be comprehended, but in the following discussion, the term "language" for comprehension will be used in considering the ability to understand only, and not necessarily the ability to use the language in question.

The hearing child comprehends far more than he can express and this discrepancy in abilities regarding the two phases of language continues throughout life. This is a truism, I can hear you say, and rightly so. No one for a minute argues to the contrary. But the fact that use of language is more dependent on habits formed over a long period of impression than upon drills and analyses, needs

emphasizing and reemphasizing in our work with deaf pupils. So long as the program in language acquisition moves forward only at the rate of the child's ability to use language, that is, his language in speech and writing, we are depriving him of the help that might be his in a program planned to ask of him only comprehension at first. In the latter program, reading language may become a substitute for the hearing of language.

It is through both lip reading and reading that the deaf pupil receives the language of others. A well-planned oral environment surrounds the child with a vast amount of language and is surely helpful in bringing about a reaction to language, and to some extent, in the formation of correct language habits. Lip reading, however necessary and helpful as it is as a purveyor of language, is not sufficient, and is far less efficacious in this respect than is reading. (This is not a plea for less lip reading, but rather for more reading.) Instead of the fleeting impression provided in lip reading, necessitating a speaker, usually the teacher, in reading, the pupil may see the language as long as he requires for comprehension, and provision for practice is possible without the active participation of the teacher.

Not only does the hearing child acquire much of the content of his language through the effortless avenue of hearing but he also requires in the same effortless fashion the correct way of using the elementary language constructions which have been most often repeated. The hearing brother who never confuses the word order of simple sentences, whose verbs always agree in number with the subject, and are used in the proper tense form with the right auxiliaries, and whose use of the little words "a," "an," "the," and "some" is always correct, is not one bit more virtuous than his deaf brother whose use of language is not so correct. Agreeing with the above statement, we cannot say that Jim, the deaf brother, is "careless" when he makes the mistakes in language usage that Jack, his hearing brother, never makes. Is Jack any more "careful" than Jim? My guess is that he is not—conceivably much less so, although usually correct. And Jack does not achieve his correct usage through any analysis or drill. True, right drills, rightly instituted and rightly practised, are not without their place. But correct usage for fortunate Jack is the result of habits formed by the multiplicity of contact with correct language patterns which he has received through his hearing. For not-so-fortunate Jim, reading may supply the necessary multiple contact, especially so in the early stages of the learning process, when much of the reading consists of supplementary teacher-planned and teacher-made material.

During the years from 1936 to 1938, with Dr. Pope in New Jersey, I experimented with the reading approach to language with a class of beginners. This return to the classroom for 2 years taught me much that I otherwise could not have learned. During the years since, I have carried on the work started in New Jersey, and am now convinced that through the medium of reading we can supply our deaf pupils with more language, and with less difficulty, than in any other way.

The problems for the teacher of the deaf in the selection, organization, and presentation of the reading materials are numerous

but not insurmountable. We need first to differentiate sharply between mere recognition of words and real reading. It has been demonstrated frequently that recognition of words is no special problem for the deaf child. His achievement in reading, or recognizing, concrete nouns and verbs, concrete in the sense that they may be illustrated by experiences, with objects, by actions, or pictures, is exactly the same as that of the hearing pupil, subject to the same limitations of differences in intelligence and in opportunities for experiential background. Herein, just because of the deaf pupil's ability to learn to recognize words, lies a real danger. Teaching him to read a large number of isolated words can make of him a "word reader" for life. We, in our reading, do not read words, but groups of words which present to us a mental picture, not of printed symbols on a white page, but of the ideas of the author, interpreted by us in relation to our own previous experiences and contacts with the subject matter.

The concept of reading readiness, implying a mental age of $6\frac{1}{2}$, or more, is concerned not with the mere recognition of words, but with the ability, from groups of words and sentences, to interpret the thoughts of the author. The ability to see in sentences the relation between the subject and verb, between the subject and verb and object of the verb, the meaning of pronouns, the qualifying work of modifiers, of modifying phrases and clauses, of different meanings and different uses of the same word, unusual uses of words and phrases or idioms, and the relation of an idea to previously expressed ideas, indicate but a few of the language constructions and problems which require systematic teaching for their interpretation.

Definition of the term "language construction" as here used may not be amiss. Correctly to interpret the words "doll" and "ball" means the recognition of the word as belonging to an article of a particular species, but to interpret the word "dolls" and "balls" means that the pupil comprehends the force of "s" after a noun as universally applied to mean more than one, barring the exceptions of the English language. This universality of application we call a principle or construction. "Mary" stands for a particular girl, but the word "she" may stand for "Mary," and also, after mentioning "Jane," for her as well. The pronoun "I" stands for me when I use it, for the child when he uses it, and for Miss Connery when she uses it. Comprehension of the principle involved, that is, its application in general to numbers of instances, requires different methods of presentation and of practice than is required for the comprehension of vocabulary as such.

It is possible so to organize the reading materials that all language constructions may be presented first for comprehension in reading, graded according to difficulty, frequency of occurrence in modern readers, and need in relation to the pupils' age, their environment, and the experiences which can be provided. Time does not here permit of a consideration of the problems connected with the interpretation of many of the language constructions. It is hoped that the illustration of a few of those earliest encountered will be suggestive of ways of analyzing and presenting others.

First comes the selection of words to form the basic vocabulary. This basic list will not be long, for in a very short time, a matter of

days, these words will be used in phrases and sentences. Therefore, one of the most important criteria, in selecting the basic vocabulary, will be the possibility of combining the words. The nouns and verbs, for verbs will be given at once, will be those that can be used together in sentences. Possibility of combination, frequency of occurrence both in readers and in the environment, need, interest, and, at first, difference in appearance, will be the criteria governing the selection of the first words. For example, "ball" is interesting to the child, is a needed word, can be combined with several verbs—"threw," "caught," "rolled," "bounced"—and with color and number modifiers. Including "ball" would, however, exclude the word "doll" for the first few words, and in some cases it might perhaps be better to include "doll" with "carried," "broke," et cetera, than the word "ball." The verb "dressed" with "doll" would probably not be used among the first verbs as there will not be opportunity for combining it with many other nouns. Such a word as "elephant," while interesting, especially where children can go to the zoo, cannot be combined with enough verbs, or with modifiers, in the beginning work in reading to warrant its inclusion. If, however, the children go frequently to the zoo, and are allowed to "feed" the elephant, and to "ride" it, the word very likely would be an early choice.

It will begin to be seen that it is not possible to prescribe a blanket list of words that will fit the needs of all deaf children alike. Reference should be made to standardized word lists, and to the content of selected readers, but the first consideration is the child in a particular environment.

Another early problem necessary to consider is the use of the nouns and the form of the verbs. Invariably presenting the noun with the article most usually used with it, as "a ball," "an apple," "some meat," paves the way for "my a ball," "yellow a ball," et cetera, while invariably presenting the noun without an article gives us "I found ball." Writing our noun cards, on one side including the article, and on the other side omitting it (illustration) gives us a 50-50 presentation of both situations and does not fix the habit of one way of use to the exclusion of the other. When the program provides for training in the correct use of language after the early flooding with language for comprehension only, the pupil will then be more mature and more able, where right choices have not yet become habitual, to make the necessary analysis. Of course, he should be helped to use any construction he may require, but not expected to make it his own to apply generally until he has given evidence of comprehension a great number of times.

We face similar problems in the different forms of a given verb. Too long a time spent on one form, be it the root form or present tense, or the past tense, fixes the habit for the particular form worked on or used, and makes difficult flexible changing of forms as required. While the past form has the highest frequency in narration, and in the readers, the root form is needed in the past negative, and, of course, in many other situations and combinations. Therefore, it has been found best to present the verb first in the past form, but immediately to match it with the root form and with the present participle form, so that the pupil learns at once that "ran," "run," and "run-

ning" all stand for the same action—that is, all mean the same thing. The meaning of the different forms is another problem, and the pupil should not be asked to solve more than one problem at a time. Mounted cards of different colored paper for the different forms have been found practicable and helpful—green for the past form, for example, blue for the root form, and yellow for the participle form of all verbs as they are learned. These cards constitute a visual aid and reference for the pupil when he makes an attempt to use the verbs himself in speech and in writing.

(Here Mrs. Davies showed materials used in the teaching of pronouns, plurals of nouns, prepositions, prepositional phrases, the reading of connected or related sentences, idiomatic expressions, singular and plural of present tense, time phrases, relative clauses, et cetera.)

There is not time to show all possibilities in multiplying contact with a particular language construction. The new vocabulary in the readers should be available, for practice, on cards, and also sentences using the new constructions and vocabulary of a given reader should be prepared. These may be used by pairs of pupils, one flashing the cards, and the other finding the pictures or reference in the reader. It must be remembered, however, that the reading of flash cards is not the same thing as the reading of printed material in books. The cards should not take the place of the latter, but should be used only to supplement other reading in order to provide for the requisite frequency of contact. Gates has estimated that from 20 to 30 contacts are required to fix new reading vocabulary. For pupils to whom the word may be an entirely new acquisition, not only in reading but in any way whatsoever, we may with safety double Gates' maximum estimate of 30 until we have more data than we have at present on the subject.

Fortunately the vocabulary and content of the best modern readers are so well planned to correspond to child interests and experiences that we have at hand a vast amount of excellent material. These readers may be used almost from the start in the first grade with 6- and 7-year-old deaf children. This is especially true with pupils who have been enrolled in a nursery school where beginning habits in speech and lip reading have already been formed for the language most easily lip read and pronounced.

The reading program should provide for the reading of many different and carefully selected books of the same grade level. The work books accompanying the best modern readers are excellent for the variety of practice they provide. These work books should not be thought of as "busy work," nor as tests of what the pupil remembers of the story. The best work books are designed to teach and not to test the pupil, unless the exercise is labeled a test. These books provide additional contacts in some cases, and in others they prepare for and teach the pupil the meaning of material he is to meet later in the reader.

Excellent as are the books available today, however, the teacher of the elementary grades is not freed from the necessity of making, and in helping the pupils to illustrate, books of their own experiences. The reading on the primary level consists for the most part of the

recall of similar experiences, and the provision for a full program of experiences, and stories relating to those experiences is absolutely essential. Some material of this nature is included in the exhibit of Central Institute on display at this convention. [One book shown.]

The problem of the unphonetic word and consequent mispronunciation we are finding not so great as had been feared by some. Although many of our words are not pronounced as they are spelled, this is not true of the great majority. To repeat what I have just related in another section, summer-school students of mine last summer, as a special problem, made a study of the words in Gates' Revised Word List and found the percentage that are entirely phonetic, according to the spellings of the Northampton charts, to be 78.8. As Gates' list includes Horne's list of the first thousand spoken words as well as all the words from modern readers through the third, the fear that reading ahead of speech might interfere greatly with correct pronunciation would seem to be unfounded. Therefore, through the use of much teacher-made reading material, the use of a large number of the excellent printed books, and the provision of carefully graded practice designed to help in the interpretation of language constructions, may we not supply our pupils with an amount of comprehended language adequate to take the place of that which is of such great assistance to the hearing pupil?

PRESCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN

Leader: Miss Virginia Rosser, Gough School, San Francisco, Calif.; chairman, Mr. Lloyd E. Berg, superintendent, Iowa School.

Discussion: "In considering the possible value of preschool training, is the important question whether there is an acceleration of academic learning around the age of 10, or whether there is a diminution of adjustment problems?" D. T. Cloud, managing officer, Illinois school.

Paper: Do We Teach Speech as a Means or an End? William L. Fair, principal, Kansas school.

DO WE TEACH SPEECH AS A MEANS OR AN END?

(WILLIAM L. FAIR, principal, Kansas School)

Parents of deaf children who will soon enter school often ask us, "Will my child learn to talk?" or they say, "I want my child to be able to talk like other children." One parent once told me she would rather die than see her child grow up a "dummy." To these parents it seems more important that the school teach their children to speak words correctly than to have them develop normal language and straight thinking. It is hard for them to understand that though children may learn to pronounce words, it does not necessarily follow that they comprehend the meaning of what they say.

Parents are not the only ones who think that if a deaf child can learn to speak, all other obstacles to his learning will be eliminated. Although most of us realize that speech and language must go hand in hand, even some of those connected with the education of the deaf have the erroneous idea that if a child has the ability to speak words he understands the language and grasps the thought the words were intended to convey. This is shown when a teacher says that although

Johnny is doing poor number work, reading, and written work, he should be promoted because he has such good speech.

In discussing speech we must remember that it includes more than mechanical articulation and imitation of the teacher's speech. It must be based on language. The child should thoroughly understand every word he learns to speak, and every sentence he utters should have for him a clear and correct meaning. Hours and hours of drill on how to speak a word will not acquaint the child with its meaning. Neither will he understand the thought expressed in a sentence through merely learning to say it. Understanding of the content of a sentence must be given a child as he is taught to speak it.

Every teacher will agree that it is necessary to promote the teaching of speech in every school for the deaf. In the first years of a deaf child's education speech occupies an important place, not only because it furnishes a foundation for speech reading but because it helps the child more quickly to approach the status of a normal child. In these early years his ability in speech and language is fairly equal, but as the years pass by, unless he is a very apt speech pupil, his knowledge of language increases much more rapidly than his progress in speech. As in schools for hearing children, we must make allowances for the individual differences in the learning ability of pupils. Many of the children in our schools are able to make satisfactory progress in all their lessons and carry on their work in speech, but there are some who are perfectly normal deaf children whose ability in speech is not such that they can progress rapidly enough to keep up their speech work with their regular school subjects.

Let us compare the development of the deaf child with the building of a great edifice. Craftsmen use blueprints to complete a substantial piece of work; the better the blueprint, the more perfect the building should be. However, unless the building is erected on a firm foundation, its usefulness and beauty will not last. Let us consider the blueprint as speech, the foundation as language, the builders as the teachers, and the completed building the development of the child. Speech is a fine pattern to use in building the foundation, upon which must rest the future success of the child, both in school and in later life. Unless the foundation is built strongly, unless the teachers give the child a thorough understanding of language as he goes along, even the blueprint (speech) cannot make a success of the finished product. On a weak foundation the development of the child in school will fail even as a building may crumble before it is completed. Let us continue the analogy of the building with the development of the child above the foundation. As the carpenters, stonemasons, plumbers, and electricians can do a more exact job by following the blueprint, so can the alert teacher have better success in teaching reading, mathematics, social studies, and the other school subjects, if she can follow the pattern set up by the child's spontaneous questions and exclamations. In the later years of school life language is of great importance to him in completing his other school work. If the pupil is a hopeless speech prospect, and if the teacher is forced to make a choice between giving him drill in speech, when she thinks it will be of little use to him, and strengthening his foundation in language, she will probably choose to carry on the work in language.

The primary aim of our schools for the deaf is to have each child acquire normal mental development and normal language. If he can attain these, and at the same time have good speech, so much the better. Good speech is a thing greatly to be desired, and it is certainly a means of removing many barriers to a child's educational progress.

We want our deaf children to be as normal as it is possible for them to be. We want them to have a fair knowledge of the subject matter we teach in our schools, to use normal language, to know what to do under every normal condition, to have intelligible speech, and to be of good character. Of course this is placing our wants pretty high; but why not? None of these desires, when considered singly, can be the ultimate goal in the development of our deaf children. They may all be considered a part of the goal or end toward which we are working. In other words, each of them may be called a means to an end. Even intelligible speech is only a means to an end, the end being to equip the pupils in our schools to take their places in society as normal American citizens.

SPEECH DEVELOPMENT

Leader: Jennie M. Henderson, principal, Horace Mann School for the Deaf.

Paper: Speech as Conducted at Central Institute, Rachel Dawes Davies, Central Institute, St. Louis, Mo.

Paper: Beginning Speech Training for 4- and 5-year-old Deaf Children, Priscilla Pittenger, A. G. Bell School, Cleveland, Ohio.

Paper: The Place of Elements Teaching in Speech Development—Is the Cart Before the Horse? Mary E. Numbers, teacher in charge, middle school, Clarke School, Northampton, Mass.

BEGINNING SPEECH TRAINING FOR 4- AND 5-YEAR-OLD DEAF CHILDREN

(PRISCILLA PITTINGER, A. G. Bell School, Cleveland, Ohio)

In recent years psychologists have been much interested in the development of speech and language of little children. All new psychologies contain the conclusions reached in research on this subject. The findings are so similar that it must be accepted as fact that speech develops in a series of almost unvarying steps. If we are to attain our goal of normal speech for deaf children—speech that will be satisfactory to the child and to us—we may well examine these steps to see whether we are really following them in the same way and in the same order. After all, the teaching of speech to the deaf will be in its experimental stages until in every instance we can feel that the speech of the child is intelligible to anyone who hears it. There can be little or no doubt that we have not yet achieved this objective.

It is my purpose at this time to discuss the teaching of speech to children who apparently do not profit by hearing aids, that is, the profoundly deaf child. I believe that even such children should be encouraged to use hearing aids and given every opportunity to develop undiscovered residuums of hearing, but for the moment, let the emphasis be on the very deaf.

The development of speech passes through five definite stages in its beginnings: The babble stage, the repetition stage, the monolog stage, the naming stage, and the question-asking stage. Let us look briefly into present methods of teaching the deaf as they compare with this schedule. We have habitually begun with teaching elements, an approximation of the babble stage; we have proceeded to the repetition stage in which we have expected the children to repeat words after us; and then we have hoped that we would advance to the naming stage, and to the question-asking stage.

Arguments may be presented to support each of these steps taken in this order which at least on the surface follows the normal program in its essentials. I believe, however, that there is at least one fallacy in our reasoning. Before we can make any progress in teaching a child to talk, that child must have some idea that there is such a thing as communication by speech. Do you ever wonder what a little deaf child thinks he is doing when we start on the so-called elements of speech? What possible purpose can it have in his mind? Real learning is based on the realization of a need, and I cannot see how a 4-year-old deaf child can be persuaded that he needs the exercise that is a part of producing elements. He must first have some idea what he is learning to do.

Some weeks ago I visited in the home of a friend who has a 14-month-old baby. This child uses only one word with any definite idea of its meaning. He is experimenting with his speech, but he has not yet found out how it is produced. His comprehension of spoken words is very great. His attention can be called to people, objects in the room, or toys, by words. He can recognize and point out objects. He will obey commands pertaining to his toys. He is able to point out pictures in his books at the mention of their names. All of us recognize that this is natural and normal, but we often forget it when we are dealing with deaf children. We are prone to start a deaf child with two or three objects for lip reading and progress to the saying of the two or three words involved and forget to expose the child to other words. We start by teaching a child to say all the different parts of a word and then try to get him to put them together in order. I believe that this is not the way that hearing children learn to talk and that it is not the best way for deaf ones to learn.

Most authorities agree that deaf babies babble much as hearing babies do and that their tendency to stop babbling is the product of lack of stimulus and lack of satisfaction. Even so, most little deaf children arrive in school with some habits of vocalization. During the first days and weeks of his school life, his teacher should note the sounds of each child with an eye to making him conscious a little later of them as specific sounds which he knows how to produce. Other than this, I believe that babbling has no part in the beginning speech program except as it can be worked into games.

Miss Mary New, of the Lexington School, has been working on the hypothesis that little deaf children should begin with whole words. In her class at Teachers College, Columbia, she made such a good case for this approach to teaching speech that she sold her idea to Miss Dorothy Kester and me, and we have been experimenting with it during the past year. To refresh your memories, the idea is to use tactual, visual, and auditory stimuli and whole words in teaching speech. The

method is to provide the children with a number of toys, especially those of which the names are easy to say, to encourage them to play with these toys, to use the names of them many times a day, to give little commands involving the handling of the toys; in short, to inculcate the language idea and build the lip-reading comprehension of the child long before he begins to try to talk. As many times as possible daily the teacher places a child's hands on her face and uses the words. She asks for no return from the child until he volunteers it; and when he does, it is to be a whole word of which the child understands the meaning.

This sounds like a beautiful theory, but impractical. I will attempt to show you that it is not only practical and workable, but also highly successful. This year at Alexander Graham Bell School, in Cleveland, Miss Kester and I taught the nursery and kindergarten classes combined. This program, devised by our principal, Mr. Finch, to insure a kindergarten program which would result in the socialization of the children, made possible supervision by one of us of all play activities while the other taught speech and lip reading to small groups. As we rotated our schedules weekly, the children had the added advantage of lip reading from two different persons in the course of their regular school work. The children in the group ranged in age from 4 to 6 and there were 16 of them. We assembled some of the usual toys: Ball, top, doll, and so forth—toys of which the names are easy to say. We followed the program outlined by Miss New, using the hearing aid when it was available and simplex tubes when it was not. We played with the toys, passed them around, talked about them, matched them to pictures, and handled them in as many ways as we could devise. We tried to be careful to use the nouns in many and varying sentence structures. It came out as Miss New said it would. One by one the children began to attempt to say the words. I am not trying to create the impression that these words were said correctly and accurately the first time. Sometimes the attempt was not even a very good try. One of the hardest features of this method is to remember that very few little children, hearing or deaf, begin to talk perfectly. We began by accepting any attempt on the part of the child to say a word. It has been very interesting to observe that gradually the words begin to clear, to become definite and accurate, and that the child himself works this out in a large measure.

Coincidentally with the acquisition of vocabulary, the deaf child goes through the monolog stage. Our children sleep in the afternoon, and when they first lie down they often say over all of the words they can recall at the moment. It is very gratifying to stand by and hear a very deaf little child saying over a number of words to himself.

More quickly than we had expected, we found ourselves in the naming stage. At this point we began to be a little dubious. The children made no selection of the words they wanted on the basis of their difficulty. For example: Most of our children wear tie shoes and needed the word "shoe" when the laces were untied. Having given ourselves to this experiment, we said this word just as we had the others, the difficult "sh" sound notwithstanding. Most of our children can do a quite creditable job of saying the word "shoe." In

many cases it began by being a simple vowel sound. We waited and found that like the other words this one cleared up.

All normal children begin with one word sentences. In general we have perhaps been overambitious for our little deaf children and expected them to advance too rapidly to the sentence stage. We have not worked for sentences at all with the children in our kindergarten and nursery this year. Even so, at least two very deaf children in the group we have had this winter are putting two words together, as "shoe, bow" and "ball, key," the former being a request for a bow in shoelaces, and the latter being a request for a key in order to get the ball. The meaning of these communications was very clear at the time, at least as clear as the initial requests of hearing children. These children are now ready for connected language beginnings but they were not ready sooner, although they have, of course, had much exposure to words in sentences.

After a child has a number of words, using a variety of sounds, it is very easy to return to the babbling phase in order to fix in his mind how he does it so that it will be ready the next time he needs it in another word. We have taught no elements as such during the past year, but we have taught a great many words and we feel that we have just begun to explore the possibilities of this method. At the end of the year, to satisfy our own curiosity and perhaps as a slight reversion to what we were both taught was the proper method of beginning speech, we checked over the ability of our children to produce individual elements. We found that they have at least as many elements as they would have had if they had been taught by the element method.

We are persuaded that teaching by whole words with meaning has several great advantages both from our point of view and from that of the child. From our viewpoint: The voice quality of the children is uniformly good. They have not worked too hard for perfection with a resultant strained voice. The method is certainly less nerve-racking and strenuous, but at least as much and probably more ground may be covered. From the child's viewpoint, he has known from the beginning what he was trying to do and why. His accomplishment has always been useful to him and he already enjoys some success in making his wants known verbally. From the standpoint of both of us, less time is lost in drill, the purpose of which the teacher understands but the child does not.

Many years ago the approach to teaching reading was through the A B C's. Later, children began with syllables. Still later, they began with words; more recently sentences and little stories have been used with beginning readers. Let us make sure, as teachers of the deaf, that we are not still floundering around with an A-B-C method of teaching speech especially if we can uncover a more flexible system. In my opinion, formed through the experience of the past winter, Miss New has developed a sound and workable hypothesis which should be given a good try-out in many schools, which should be elaborated and expanded on the basis of general practice. Miss Kester and I are very enthusiastic advocates and we hope that you have seen or will see in this approach to teaching speech possibilities which you will be interested in exploring.

THE PLACE OF ELEMENTS TEACHING IN SPEECH DEVELOPMENT—IS THE CART BEFORE THE HORSE?

(MARY E. NUMBERS,¹ teacher in charge, middle school, Clarke School, Northampton, Mass.)

HAVE ELEMENTS BEEN OVEREMPHASIZED?

Teaching deaf children to execute the proper articulatory movements for the production of the various speech sounds or "elements" is one of the important aspects of our speech-teaching problem. In my opinion, however, this procedure has been generally overemphasized, or given precedence, while other equally important phases of speech production have been neglected, or left to chance. Consonants are not merely elements present in the stream of speech. They are articulatory movements which perform definite tasks within the unity of the syllable—tasks which identify them as consonants and render speech intelligible. It cannot be said, therefore, that a consonant has been learned until it is used as a rapid movement rather than a static position of the articulatory organs. Furthermore, to teach a consonant as an articulatory movement is to have the pupil execute the movement in its proper relationship to the vowel in the syllable.

There are some good reasons for a free discussion and a reexamination of the basic assumptions of the proponents of current methods of speech teaching. In the first place, few of us have real reason to be satisfied with the speech of our profoundly deaf children. We are able to understand their speech because our hearing becomes attuned to defective speech. The longer we listen to this defective speech the more intelligible it becomes to us. We, rather than the deaf child, make the adjustment. But let the grocer, or the policeman on the corner, or the prospective employer listen to this same speech, and what is their opinion? It is up to us as teachers of speech to analyze our methods with open minds, to question the validity of our assumptions, to utilize the findings of modern research and any other available source in the reorganization of our teaching methods.

THE ELEMENTS METHOD IS OUT OF STEP

I believe that an examination of the basic assumptions of the elements method will show that it is out of step with what we know about normal speech development. The orthodox method of teaching speech by first teaching separately the so-called elements—consonants and vowels—then having the child combine them into syllables and words, constitutes a misplacement of emphasis. The thesis of this paper is that in order to approximate normal speech development, these elements must be taught as integral parts of syllables rather than as abstract units. In other words, the cart is before the horse.

I shall formulate first some of the assumptions of the proponents of the elements method. What are these assumptions? In the first place, the elements method assumes, by the very nature of its approach to the problem of speech teaching, that speech is essentially a sequence of individual sounds, consonants and vowels, placed one after another

¹ This paper was written in collaboration with Dr. C. V. Hudgins of the department of research, Clarke School.

much like the letters of the alphabet in the written or printed form of speech.

SOUNDS ARE MISTAKEN FOR CONSONANTS

A second assumption is a corollary of the first, namely, since speech is a series of individual sounds related one to another in spatial terms, these sounds can be lifted from their context within the syllable and taught as abstract elements. It is understood, for instance, that the consonants "m" and "th" have been taught, or "developed" when the pupil is able to close the lips and send a vocal tone through the nose, and when the same pupil is able to force a stream of breath, or a vocal tone, through the aperture formed by placing the tip of the tongue between the teeth. Thus the sound accompanying the closed position of the articulatory organs is mistaken for the consonant.

A third assumption is that once vowels and consonants are learned separately as accurate positions of the organs, they can be put together to form words. Thus the same "m" and "th" which have been learned as static positions accompanied by streams of voice or breath are now to be used as quick movements of the lips, tongue, jaw, and velum, and accompanied by movements of the muscles which control the breath, in such words as "mouth," "thumb," and so forth. Note that the two sounds are now no longer positions of the articulatory organs but movements of those organs which open and close the vocal canal. Yet these movements have not been taught in the process of "developing" the consonants. An immediate and often a permanent consequence is a prolongation of the position and a slow transition of the articulatory organs from one element to the other which distorts the vocal tone and renders fluent speech impossible.

A fourth assumption has to do with the nature of speech rhythm. The proponents of the elements method assume, insofar as the matter is considered at all, that once consonants and vowels have been learned as individual elements, a series of such elements forming words can be put into a rhythmic pattern. And yet pupils drilled for accuracy of individual elements find it extremely difficult, and even impossible, to modify these elements according to the demands of the accented and unaccented syllables.

DO ALL IMPORTANT SPEECH PROCESSES OCCUR ABOVE THE LARYNX?

Finally, those who advocate the elements methods assume, although it is not overtly expressed, that all the important speech processes occur above the larynx, and that the essential thing in speech teaching is to teach these articulatory processes. This assumption overlooks the important fact that a primary aspect of normal speech development lies in coordinating the processes above and below the larynx.

Now, what are the reasons for saying that the assumptions listed above present an inadequate picture of the speech mechanism in action? The reasons can best be presented in terms of a few brief facts concerning speech as it occurs in the normal speaker. It is my belief that these facts lead inevitably to the conclusion that a syllable method of speech teaching, rather than the elements method is a more logical approach to the problem. No one denies the importance of teaching deaf children the articulatory processes involved in all the consonants and vowels in the language. They are vital aspects of intelligible

speech. The opinion is held, however, by a considerable number of people, both in Europe and America, that the articulatory movements must be taught in connection with the syllables in which they function. This opinion is supported by the following facts:

Audible speech is a product of a series of coordinated and well-timed muscular movements which control and modify the column of air within the vocal canal. These movements are made audible to hearing people by the sounds which they produce. To the profoundly deaf, speech is solely a matter of movements, both from the point of view of its production and its perception in terms of lip reading.

The muscles which make up the speech mechanism are widely scattered over the head and trunk but they may be roughly classified into two definite groups: (1) Breathing muscles of the chest and abdomen which control the movements of the column of air in the trachea and mouth and (2) articulatory muscles of the throat and mouth which convert the movements of the air column into intelligible speech. Since the two muscle groups operate at opposite ends of a column of air, we may say that the latter connects the two groups of muscles into a functional unit.

THE COLUMN OF AIR

The bellows action of the breathing muscles in the process of speaking moves the column of air in the same sense that the arm of the violinist moves the violin bow, and for the same purpose; namely, the production of tone. This analogy may be extended to include the action of the articulatory muscles of the speaker and the fingers of the violinist. The vocal tones produced by the movements of the air column are modified and molded into intelligible speech by the articulatory organs. In somewhat the same manner, the action of the fingers of the violinist modifies the tones of the violin. The aptness of the analogy, however, lies in the fact that both in speaking and in violin playing we have a basic series of movements, that is, movements of the air column and those of the violin bow, which are accompanied by, and intimately coordinated with, smaller accessory movements of articulation and fingering.

Careful investigation has demonstrated that the air column in speech is moved upward, not in continuous slow movement, but rather in a series of rapid pulsations. The individual pulsations form the syllables which become the indivisible elements of speech.

Consonants are movements which open and close, either partly or completely, the vocal canal in connection with the pulsations of syllables. Vowels are also movements accompanying the syllable pulsations which change the contours of the vocal canal and impose qualitative changes upon the vocal tones produced by the syllable pulsation.

CONSONANTS PERFORM TWO FUNCTIONS

Consonants perform two distinct tasks or functions with regard to the syllable: (1) They assist in releasing the syllable by momentarily closing, or obstructing and suddenly opening the vocal canal at the beginning of the pulsation for the syllable; and (2) they assist in arresting, or stopping the syllable by suddenly closing the vocal canal during the pulsation. The term "assist" is used advisedly, because syllables occur frequently with neither releasing nor arresting con-

sonants, and some consonants impose very slight obstruction to the vocal stream. Again, we may have syllables in which only one consonant is present. It may be either releasing or arresting, as in the syllables "day," "see," "too," and "at," "off," "arm." The breathing muscles themselves, therefore, are capable of controlling the movements of the air column without the assistance of the articulatory movements.

A distinction between the two functions of consonants is important in speech teaching and often the meaning of a word or phrase may depend directly upon it. For instance, in the sentences "The boy was a tease" and "The boy was at ease" the meanings hang entirely upon the functions of the consonant "t." The same conditions determine the meanings in the phrases "an ice man" and "a nice man."

TYPES OF CONSONANT COMBINATIONS

The distinctions between the releasing and the arresting functions of consonants are important again in distinguishing types of consonant combinations. Two adjacent consonants may belong to a single syllable, as for example, the "pl" in "a plate," or they may be abutting consonants between two syllables as in the phrase "up late." In the first example the "p" and "l" are closely combined, or fused to form a compound or diphthong consonant which functions as a single releasing consonant. The same pair of consonants in the second example, however, have different functions and belong to adjacent syllables.

The distinction between the two functions of consonants has not been fully understood by writers of speech manuals; or at least, it has not been clearly expressed. Yet it is easy to see that deaf children must be taught this fundamental distinction rather than leave the matter to chance. Most of these authors agree that the stops "p," "t," "k," "b," "d," "g," are to be taught as movements and in syllables either with a whispered or vocal vowel. Miss Joiner² and others have recognized the necessity of teaching these stops as both "initial" and "final" consonants. The continuative consonants, however, are taught as positions of the articulatory organs. There are no indications, therefore, among these authors, with the exception of Haycock,³ that the releasing and arresting functions have been recognized as being common to practically all consonants. The same manual, for instance, which advocates the teaching of "p" with "lips shut, then opened with an audible puff of breath" suggests in the case of "f" that "the upper teeth rest lightly on the lower lip, breath issues through the openings formed by contact of teeth and lower lip." One gets the impression that consonants are considered as static positions which articulatory organs assume between vowels, rather than dynamic movements, and that the "stops" are exceptional cases which cannot be taught as positions because no sound issues from the closed mouth during their occlusion.

The elements method offers no solution to the problem of teaching speech rhythm to deaf children. Indeed, habits acquired during the early stages of speech training under this method hinder the development of speech rhythm. Most of us will agree, and it has been demon-

² Graded Lessons in Speech, by Enfield Joiner.

³ The Teaching of Speech, by G. Sibley Haycock.

strated by studies of the speech of deaf children, that their speech as a rule is lacking in rhythm. By this I mean that there is a lack of proper accentuation and grouping of syllables into breath groups and phrases. Sentences are broken up into short, often abnormal, breath groups and the speech is altogether lacking in the smooth fluent utterance of normal speech. Yet these same children may be able to perform dance rhythms, and beat time to complicated musical rhythms almost with the ease of normally hearing children. Obviously, therefore, deaf children do not apply or transfer to their speech the training they receive in "rhythm classes." The reason speech rhythm is so difficult for deaf children lies, I believe, partly at least in the manner in which they have learned the speech sounds. They have been taught the elements and have been drilled for accuracy in these individual sounds until it becomes extremely difficult for them to overcome the habit of giving each element with a definite, and often prolonged, form.

THE SYLLABLES CARRY THE RHYTHM

The essential thing in speech rhythm is the grouping, the accenting, and the phrasing of syllables into rhythmic units and it is a fact that must not be overlooked that the syllables, rather than individual elements, carry the speech rhythm. It is the syllables that are accented and grouped into larger unities. Accentuation and grouping implies that some syllables are strong, stressed, long, while others are unaccented, weak, and short. This means that consonants and vowels within those accented and unaccented syllables are going to be long or short, strong or weak, depending upon the degree of stress and length of the syllables in which they occur. Deaf pupils who have been taught to give each consonant and each vowel a definite stereotyped value find it extremely difficult to set these elements into a rhythmic pattern, because they are not the elements of the rhythmic patterns; the syllables are the elements of the rhythmic pattern.

In order to develop the degree of flexibility for the individual sounds, the deaf child must learn from the beginning that they occur in syllables which are to be spoken with varying degrees of accent and in different forms of rhythmic groups. Every speech class becomes a "rhythm class" then, and should be from the very beginning. This does not mean that special rhythm teachers should summarily be dismissed. On the other hand, it does mean that in order to function properly, rhythm teachers should be trained more in those fundamental processes outlined above, and work with the teachers of speech.

THE INDIVISIBLE SPEECH UNIT

In answer to the question, therefore, how can the "elements" be taught most efficiently, it is my conviction that they must be taught from the very beginning as essential parts of syllables. A consonant cannot be separated from its syllable. We might as well speak of analyzing and teaching the "broad jump" in terms of the "take-off," "body flight," and "landing." The absurdity of such an analysis is obvious. Likewise, the syllable is the indivisible speech unit. The consonants are the "take-off" and the "landing"; the vowel is the "flight." How then can the action, on the function of consonants, be lifted from the immediate relationships within the unit and taught

separately? One might as well ask how one can learn to drive a car sitting in the garage. You learn to start the car by starting it; you learn to shift gears and to manipulate the clutch by doing it; you learn to drive in traffic by driving in traffic.

A few years ago, at a section meeting of the Pennsylvania branch of the International Council for the Education of Exceptional Children at Harrisburg, Dr. Koepp-Baker, of Penn State College, aptly compared the processes of speaking and those of walking. He said that if one tried to analyze the process of walking, the following details might be outlined. The subject simply raises his right foot, thrusts it forward, puts it down, then raises the left foot, thrusts it forward, and puts it down. But these details do not constitute walking. The coordinated muscular movements included in the complete step and the ordered sequence of a series of strides are the important aspects of the process of walking.

A syllable method of speech teaching does not ignore the importance of teaching the speech sounds. There is rather a shift in emphasis, recognizing that articulation is one of several aspects of the process of speaking. Instead of beginning speech teaching by teaching first the elementary positions of the sounds, and thus attributing a place of primary importance to the processes of articulation, speech development starts with syllables of which the articulatory movements are inseparable parts. Thus these movements become supplementary functions in the total coordinated pattern of speech production. Defective articulatory movements may not be taken out of the total pattern and taught as separate units. The defects are corrected, rather, within the setting of the syllable in which they have their logical function.

SUMMARY

To summarize briefly, I have argued that the method of teaching speech by teaching consonants and vowels as separate elements, often as mere positions of the articulatory members, and insisting that the pupil master these individual sounds with "accuracy" before combining them into syllables, is based upon a limited or inadequate conception of the processes involved in speech production. The method ignores the important fact that a vital portion of the process of speaking occurs below the larynx. Pupils are required to combine the elements into words and phrases, a process which calls into action a whole set of muscular coordinations for which they have received no training at all. A syllable method of speech teaching is advocated in which the consonants and vowels are associated from the beginning in the relationships in which they appear in normal speech. The elements are not to be ignored, therefore, but are rather to be taught as vital parts of an integrated whole.

AURICULAR TRAINING AND RHYTHM

Leader: Marshall S. Hester, supervising teacher, advanced department, California School; chairman, Richard G. Brill, principal, Virginia School.

Paper: Group Hearing Aids Must Answer Individual Needs, June Yale Probyn, supervising teacher, primary department, American School, West Hartford, Conn.

Discussion: Glenn I. Harris, head teacher, advanced department, Colorado School; Blanche Evans, Kansas School.

GROUP HEARING AIDS MUST ANSWER INDIVIDUAL NEEDS

(JUNE YALE PROBYN, supervising teacher, primary department, American School, West Hartford, Conn.)

Archigenes, a Greek physician of Alexandria, about the first century A. D., conceived the idea of "resuscitating the sense of hearing in deaf persons by putting them in the midst of noises which were loud enough for them to hear, using, if necessary, a speaking trumpet." Speaking trumpets are a little out of date, but there is still need for much resuscitating and we are still considerably in the dark as to the best means for effecting this resuscitation. Speaking trumpets were not nearly so useful to nearly so many people as our modern hearing aids, but in one respect they were superior. Any work done with them had to be individual work. We are a little inclined to give a hearing aid carte blanche, so to speak, go merrily about our business of teaching, unaware of its existence unless we happen to fall over it, and expect that somehow it will accomplish what we hope it will, all by itself.

The group hearing aid is a group aid only because from one amplifier come several sets of headphones. These phones are all the same color, size, and shape, but the children who use them are not. We cannot simply set these children in the midst of one, as our Greek physician did with his trumpet users, and hope to accomplish anything worth while. We must not lose sight of the fact that although these instruments are called group aids, they are still capable of answering individual needs and must do so, if they are to justify themselves. In addition our modern aids definitely demand a change in our teaching techniques. For several reasons, this phase of the problem has proved a trifle more complicated for us than it did for our early Greek physician and we are still far from a satisfactory solution. Our danger only lies in thinking that we have found it and being satisfied with less than perfect results.

I venture to say that in no school for the deaf is it possible to achieve perfect grading. For this reason we find pupils with varying degrees and types of deafness and at varying educational grade levels in the same class. This condition and the problem it presents are far from new, but the pitch-range audiometer and the electrical hearing aid have made it more acute. We now find that there is a large group of children in our schools who are neither profoundly deaf nor hard of hearing who can be reached with a powerful hearing aid. Formerly this group has been taught by the same methods as those used with the profoundly deaf, and, to all intents and purposes, they were profoundly deaf. We now find that this remnant of hearing has great significance educationally for us and for the child.

First of all, what shall we call this group? Shall we refer to them as partially deaf, severely deaf, or what? The moment we try to make a classification on the basis of an audiometer test we run into trouble. A child who has never had more than 40 percent of his hearing is quite a different educational problem from one who has been losing his hearing over a period of time. A profoundly deaf child may not have become so until he had acquired speech and language. He presents quite a different educational problem from a profoundly deaf child who was born so. Finally, a classification based solely on the level of a child's curve tells us nothing about the type of curve, which is of equally great significance. Future discussions of this phase of our

work would be greatly clarified if we were all using the same system of classification and terminology. For the duration of this discussion I shall refer to those children congenitally deaf, with a residue of hearing from approximately 25 to 45 percent, as the "severely deaf from birth" for lack of something better.

It is in behalf of this group, more than any other, that our teaching techniques must undergo some radical changes. Until recently these children have been receiving their education by the same methods as those applied to the profoundly deaf because we were not aware of the degree to which even this small amount of hearing could become useful. In the past it was to be hoped that they might acquire a small hearing vocabulary and perhaps a little better speech as a result of being able to hear voice when amplified, but this was all that was expected of them. When we know how useful this amount of hearing may be to a child who at one time has had more, is it unreasonable to hope that we can make this same amount of hearing equally as useful to a child who has never had more? We cannot answer this question yet, but if it is a reasonable assumption and a worth-while goal, there seems to be little to lose by trying.

In most of our schools the enrollment is not sufficiently large to enable us to grade our pupils according to educational achievement, degree of hearing loss, type of deafness, and age at onset of deafness. It is often even impossible to use any one of these satisfactorily. It is more often the rule than the exception that one of our classes will include children who learn slowly, children who learn fast, one who is hard of hearing, several who are profoundly deaf from birth, one or two who are severely deaf, and still another who may be only slightly hard of hearing. How much class work should we do? How much individual work? I think we are inclined to do too much of the former and far too little of the latter. We may have to take a few hints from the country school teacher who somehow manages to handle four, five, and even more grades at one time, in the same classroom. In the case of our deaf children who present so many individual problems, I am sure that 15 minutes of well-directed individual work is worth an hour of haphazard classroom work, where Sammy is neglected during the acoustic training period because "he is practically stone deaf," while Johnny, who is hard of hearing, has to mark time while the intricacies of "a" and "the" and "this" and "that" are explained to Sammy. If Sammy is really "stone deaf," he shouldn't have to fuss around with a hearing aid at all unless he wants to. He would do far better to spend that time on "a" and "the."

This whole question of class work versus individual work becomes particularly important in any acoustic training program. I am speaking now of the time actually devoted to the training of residual hearing. So next let us consider what problems these individual cases present.

Before any acoustic training program can become effective, we must establish two points clearly and definitely. First, the amount of hearing we have to work with. Second, what we should reasonably expect to accomplish.

The first point may be easily established provided satisfactory audiometric readings are available. Yearly readings should be taken and these supplemented by a test for speech hearing. The audiometer tests only the child's ability to hear pure tones. The tests for speech

hearing will give us a more complete picture of his hearing acuity. In addition to being useful for diagnostic purposes, these tests will also give us a basis for measuring the child's progress under an acoustic training program. We can thus measure the degree of usefulness his hearing is attaining. Such a test should be given with a hearing aid with the severely deaf, and both with and without a hearing aid with the hard of hearing.

The Ewings recommend a syllable test for this purpose. If we wish to test the degree of usefulness of a given amount of hearing, we intend to test how useful that particular amount of hearing may be for interpreting speech. Isolated speech sounds are not speech as it is used for communicative purposes. On the other hand, if we use sentences for such a test, then much may be gathered from context and not actually heard. A word test will probably prove the most satisfactory. At the American School we are using a list of 40 words which include all the vowel sounds and all the consonant sounds in their initial and final positions. This test, however, is far from being completely satisfactory. For example, the final sound of "k" in the word "lake" is seldom correctly interpreted. The word is more often heard as "late." Whereas the final "k" in the word "cook" is seldom misunderstood. Once a wholly reliable test of this sort is devised, then we shall have some means of evaluating the sight-hearing method. Work on such a test was reported as under way in the last annual report from the department of experimental phonetics at Clarke School.

With very young children reliable audiometric measurements are usually impossible to obtain. We can only make a very rough estimate of the amount of hearing present. A child's response to gross sounds, vowel sounds, and simple words, with and without the use of a hearing aid, will give us some indication. If there is no response to any of these tests, then we can only assume that at the moment there is no usable hearing. But let us give the child every opportunity to prove that he has. The only means at our disposal for doing this is to encourage the child to use what hearing he may have, as much as possible and as soon as possible, for acquiring speech, language, and lip reading. We need not expect that he will be able to do anything through hearing alone, but we can give him the benefit of the doubt and allow him to use both sight and touch. Our chances of error and their consequences will be less, if we follow this course, than if we assume that, because of an inadequate response to an inadequate test, the child probably has little usable hearing.

What should we reasonably expect to accomplish? We cannot simply put these children "in the midst of noises" and expect anything to happen. Our expectations and our results must vary according to the degree and type of deafness with which we deal. But we must not, we cannot, leave it entirely up to the hearing aid.

With young deaf children, unfamiliar with the mechanics of a hearing aid, our first job is to teach them how to wear and use one. We all know what a nuisance a hearing aid and all its accompanying impedimenta can be at times. Many great moments of inspired teaching are rudely shattered and lost forever because a hearing aid squealed. This nerve-racking, inspiration-destroying, patience-trying state of affairs could largely be avoided if we would take time out at the start

to give our pupils a detailed course in the taming of the hearing aid. If we are teaching with a hearing aid, the child must learn what his responsibility is. He must learn to use the volume control properly. He must learn not to move or take off his earphones while the volume is turned up. Then he must learn how to manage the thing during the regular classroom work, when there is bound to be a certain amount of jumping up and down, going to the board to write, or to the microphone to recite. Under these latter circumstances it is probably wiser to have the children keep on their earphones, simply pulling out the jacks and holding them in their hands or putting them in their pockets. This all sounds very simple and elementary, but there would be far less aversion on the part of teachers to the use of hearing aids with little deaf children if some such simple course were followed.

Perhaps it would have been more logical to mention first the teacher's own responsibility in all this. She must know how to use the hearing aid herself. She doesn't need to be an electrical engineer, nor a radio technician, but she should know that microphones must be talked into and that they will not pick up the human voice and transmit it with any degree of accuracy at a distance of more than 10 or 15 feet. She must know when earphones are out of commission and report them the same day.

Having jumped this preliminary hurdle our next big must is to create in the child the desire to use his hearing. This poor old idea must be pretty well worn out by now, but we still have use for it. It is not an easy task, particularly with very young children. The earphones are heavy and uncomfortable at first. Hearing aid paraphernalia is confusing, confining, and awkward to use. A little patience will see us past this stage, however.

We should naturally not expect that little children will be able to start right off wearing the earphones all day. They should be required to wear them for very short periods only but as much longer as they desire. If they show any indication that they wish to wear them longer, then they should be encouraged to do so. This general procedure can be followed for the child's first year in school at least. This period of mechanical adjustment, so to speak, will be greatly shortened if we make the beginning exercises with the hearing aid as simple as possible for the child. Any attempt to use the hearing aid for regular classroom work the first months will, I am afraid, only add to the confusion and bewilderment of the child. Let the children listen to music during these first periods. Do not make any attempt to teach with it until the children feel at home with it. When they do, then the logical time to start using it for teaching will be during the speech period.

Hearing aids are not going to perform any miracles by themselves. At present, and probably for some time to come, they can only supplement our old methods of teaching speech to deaf children. Sight and touch must continue to play their important roles as in the past. As soon as possible, however, we should begin to use sight, touch, and hearing for all our teaching.

I should like to elaborate our time-worn idea about "creating in the child the desire" to hear, by going one step further and suggesting that, in order to do this, we must make the child feel dependent on his hearing aid or rather on what hearing he may have—not to the extent that he will feel utterly helpless without but, rather, that he will

grow to feel that it is an indispensable tool—something he needs in addition to his sight and touch. If there are some who feel that a child can become too dependent on his hearing to the detriment of his progress in lip reading, for example, let me say two things: First, would we deny a boy with a broken leg the use of a crutch because he might become so dependent on it that he would never again walk without it? Secondly, lip-reading ability, as we all know, depends largely on one's use and understanding of spoken language. If the sight-hearing method will increase our children's ability to use and understand the spoken word, must it not naturally follow that they will be better lip readers?

Acoustic training involves more than the building up of a hearing vocabulary. This is a phase of the work, but not the most important. With little children the time devoted to this kind of training should be brief and occasional. One teacher has worked out a very satisfactory procedure by which at the end of each speech, language, and lip-reading lesson, she uses the material of those lessons as a basis for short "listening" exercises. This seems to work much better than one long lesson devoted to "listening."

For listening is a strenuous business for ears unaccustomed to it, and once the fatigue point is reached much more harm than good is done by "prolonging the agony." Another excellent point in the procedure just outlined is that the children are listening to familiar material. This is an especially important consideration in dealing with children who are using their hearing for the first time. The tasks to be accomplished through hearing alone should be made easy enough so that the child will not be discouraged by repeated failure at the very outset.

Acoustic training should not be just another subject added to an already full curriculum. It is not a subject. The time devoted to learning to interpret speech through hearing alone is only a means to an end. It is an important part of the means, but it is not the end. We must make the child's hearing useful to him in every phase of his education. This is especially true for those children severely deaf from birth—those who have usable hearing, if we make it so.

Our reasonable expectations for the three groups with whom we have to deal—namely, the profoundly deaf, the severely deaf from birth, and the hard of hearing—may be summed up as follows. We may expect that the profoundly deaf, those children with less than 25 percent of their hearing, to draw a very arbitrary line, may learn to use their hearing to compare voice qualities, accent patterns in words and phrases, inflections, and rate of speaking. They may also learn to distinguish, through hearing alone, sentences and words where the choice is limited by number or context. They may also learn to distinguish vowel sounds and even consonant sounds by comparison. This meager amount of hearing can be made use of, but only to a very limited extent, that extent being to give the child more natural speech. And even this can only be accomplished if the training is started early.

The second group, the severely deaf from birth, is the group for which we hope to accomplish the most with an acoustic training program. They will be able to do all that the profoundly deaf can do and much more. The results should be even more satisfactory as far as better speech is concerned. Once the hearing of these children has been trained sufficiently to enable them to interpret some speech

through their hearing, then a combination of sight and touch for all classroom subjects will ease the strain and should have the effect of speeding up progress all along the line.

At the American School the profoundly deaf comprise 36 percent of the enrollment; the severely deaf, 31 percent; and the hard of hearing, 24 percent.

I do not know how these figures compare with those of other schools. In our case, at any rate in the past, 67 percent of our children have been treated as profoundly deaf, because to all educational intents and purposes they were profoundly deaf. If now almost half this number can be reached with our electrical hearing aids and reached so effectively that, other factors being favorable, they may leave us with more of the earmarks of the hard of hearing than of the profoundly deaf, a planned program for the use of group hearing aids and all our efforts should be more than justified and certainly not in vain.

The third group, the hard of hearing, by rights should not be part of this discussion. Whose responsibility are they? How and where can their needs most efficiently be met? Presumably we agree that most of these cases could and should be handled by the public schools under ideal circumstances. But unfortunately few public schools seem to be in a position financially to assume the responsibility for these children who need special work in speech correction and lip reading. As a result many of them find their way into our schools, often when it is too late for us to do what we should and could for them. Their presence is more upsetting often than we realize. In no way does there seem to be much good arising out of the situation. One of two things inevitably happens. Either the hard of hearing have to slow down to the pace set by the deaf and the ever-widening gap between their educational ages and their chronological ages becomes so great that by the time they might be able to return to public school it is time for them to get a job and settle down to the serious business of making a living, with not much more than a junior high-school education to back them up. Or we unconsciously allow the hard of hearing to set the pace for the deaf and then the deaf suffer. If we try to handle as a class a group composed of both these types of children, we are inevitably faced with a dilemma.

By the presence of both these types in the same class a situation is created in which we unconsciously relegate the deaf to a position of inferiority. Because of their great speech and language handicap, their progress is naturally much slower, and this becomes even more apparent when they work side by side with the hard of hearing. The danger lies in our expecting less of the deaf than they are actually capable of. The existence of this danger is neither impossible nor fanciful. You may consider it a needless source of worry. I only know that it has happened in my own classroom. We must not, consciously or otherwise, allow the hard of hearing in any way to affect our efforts in behalf of the profoundly deaf and the severely deaf. Let them, rather, serve as a source of inspiration to us, to narrow the yawning gap between them and never, under any circumstances, serve as an excuse for the less-than-perfect results we too often achieve for the deaf.

Admitting the presence of these two evils, what can be done about them? How can the problem be handled so that the greatest benefit accrues to the greatest number? There is one solution, which involves

the hiring of a few extra teachers, so I shall refrain from even discussing it. If there is any appropriating of funds to be done for this purpose, the public schools should do it. The only practical solution will probably be for us all to turn country school teachers.

Mr. de la Bat, principal of the school for the deaf at Worcester, South Africa, suggested to the education authorities of the Transvaal Province, when they asked him for advice about special classes for the hard of hearing, that it would be cheaper, under the circumstances existing there, to provide each hard-of-hearing child with an individual instrument and let him continue in public school. In this country how would the cost of an individual aid compare with the cost of special instruction in the public school or the cost to the State of institutionalizing the child?

Since the hard of hearing are with most of us for better or worse, for some time to come, what shall we reasonably expect to accomplish for them? We should get them up to, or keep them at, their public-school grade level wherever it is possible. In addition we should give them what they need of speech correction and lip reading. If this does not correspond to the work the deaf children in the class are doing, then they should be attended to individually. If these cases can be detected early enough, we should do our best to return these children to public school as soon as possible, equipped with the necessary tools for carrying on in the hearing world where they rightfully belong. With our group hearing aids the task should not be too difficult.

DISCUSSION OF MRS. PROBYN'S PAPER

Mr. GLENN I. HARRIS. This paper represents conclusions based on actual experience. Opinions may vary as to the division points used, but a careful study will show that the stress is placed on the individual and on his particular type of hearing and the divisions are made only for convenience.

I particularly like it because, while it urges us to greater effort, it does not make any promises to the parents that we cannot expect to achieve. We should make it clear that magnifying glasses have not eliminated all sight defects, and neither can sound amplifiers remedy all hearing defects.

Now that we can equip 20 classrooms with good group hearing aids for what we paid for 1 unit 15 years ago, we shall see much more auricular work in our schools. As teachers we must learn to use these sets to the best advantage, and, as Mrs. Probyn points out, the auricular method is not a new subject to be taught to our pupils but it is a supplemental method of teaching the subjects of our curriculum. With this method, individual instruction must be stressed. Classes speeded up through the use of hearing may well accommodate profoundly deafened pupils who come to us with hearing backgrounds.

Not all hard-of-hearing persons react favorably to individual hearing aids. If we can create a listening habit and a desire to use hearing on the part of some of our hard-of-hearing pupils, it will probably be an easy matter to have them equipped with individual sets and returned to public schools. A large percentage, however, will continue to be with us.

As always, the three things every classroom should have are: An American flag, the best teacher available, and the best teaching material available, but more and more group hearing aids are becoming a part of that available teaching material and our newest problem is the best use to be made of this equipment.

Mrs. BLANCHE EVANS. I am sure that Mrs. Probyn has clarified problems that have confronted a great many of us who perhaps have used the acoustic method more or less experimentally, and we are very fortunate to have heard from one who has done so much in this field.

I do not feel that I am qualified in any way to add anything to this paper but would like to take the discussion time allotted to me to ask Mrs. Probyn some questions which I hope will be of general interest.

To me one of the most valuable points that have been brought out comes from the subject of the paper itself, Group Hearing Aids Must Answer Individual Needs.

In attempting to provide group hearing aids that will meet the individual needs for the school which is expanding its acoustic program various problems arise.

Some of these questions that I have in mind now are:

1. In the case of the small school with only one group hearing aid, when is the place to begin? Should it be placed where it will be accessible for use by all the classes for certain periods during the day or should it be used by the class that has the most hearing?

2. Should the child who is considered totally deaf be expected to use the hearing aid?

3. What provision can be made for training the teachers in the school so that a uniform method of instruction might be used throughout?

CURRICULUM CONTENT

Leader: Roy G. Parks, principal, Georgia School.

Paper: Hearing Aids in the Curriculum, E. S. Tillinghast, superintendent, Arizona School.

Discussion: Elizabeth S. Dunlap, Rochester, N. Y.

Paper: Speech and Speech-Reading in the Intermediate Department, Juliet A. McDermott, Georgia School.

HEARING AIDS IN THE CURRICULUM

(EDWARD W. TILLINGHAST, superintendent, Arizona School)

Auricular training is certainly not new to us, but with the advent of the electrical amplifying devices, or hearing aids, it has taken an entirely new position in our field of education. The great advance in acoustical equipment and the probability of continued further refinement in this equipment undoubtedly provide us with new opportunities, and at the same time new problems to be solved. There are divergent opinion and confusion in terminology, classification, objectives, methods, and results obtained. We need to clarify our thinking all along these lines. Continued research and experience in the use of hearing aids in our schools should enable us to do this.

We have reached the point where the value of hearing aids is evident, and it is up to us to determine the most effective use of such equipment.

The first requisite to the use of hearing aids is an adequate testing program. The needs for such a program are: (1) A quiet room in which to test pupils. (Incidentally the application of sound-absorbing material to the walls reduces extraneous noises.) (2) A reliable audiometer which meets accepted audiometric standards in purity of tones, intensity calibrations, etc., and provides sufficient frequency readings for a satisfactory audiogram. (3) A person to do the testing who has become familiar with the audiometer, and with proper methods of testing. (4) A method of recording test results and other pertinent information, and of filing this information. (5) Last, and most important, are the interpretation and use of the audiogram after it has been secured. Some problems in this connection are the type of deafness, type of hearing aid most suitable, possibilities of acoustic training, classification of pupils, and educational methods needed. The importance of obtaining information regarding the child's age, educational achievement, social habits, intelligence, background, health, cause and type of deafness, for use in connection with this audiogram should be emphasized. It is not only the auditory acuity of the child but also these other factors which will influence the degree of benefit the child may receive from a hearing aid.

After a testing program has been set up, the next step is the acquisition of hearing-aid equipment to meet the individual needs of the school in line with the funds available. I believe such equipment is being discussed elsewhere on the program, but in general, for a group hearing aid, a receiving head set and microphone with individual controls at each desk, and a portable directional microphone for the teacher are most desirable. This permits two-way conversation with each pupil and with the teacher, as well as permitting the child to hear his own voice with a minimum of distortion. Arrangement of the equipment should permit freedom of movement about the room. There is the possibility of securing a locally made set if a qualified radio technician is available. The advantages of such are lower cost and better servicing. A "sound-proofed" room is desirable, as it greatly reduces extraneous noises. Sound-absorbing material is available for walls and floors.

The portable individual aid should not be overlooked, especially for smaller schools where funds are limited and classification difficult. In purchasing any hearing-aid equipment the cost and availability of servicing should be investigated.

When we consider the use of hearing aids in our school curriculum we are confronted with several important questions. What are the objectives in the use of hearing aids? What are the possibilities and the practical limitations? How can the available equipment be most effectively used?

In discussing these questions we should classify pupils into two groups: The hard of hearing and the deaf. The hard of hearing are those who can comprehend language through the ear with proper amplification. The objectives in using a hearing aid with this group

should be to educate through the ear in the normal way, to enable them to retain and develop better speech, to reinforce speech reading, and to maintain and develop happier and more normal personalities. It is this group of children who will receive the greatest benefit from the use of a hearing aid. They should be segregated, if possible, into classes which have full-time use of a hearing aid. In event such segregation is impossible, the use of individual portable hearing aids offers a worth-while solution. The value of a hearing aid in fulfilling the objectives for this group is inestimable, and easily observed.

Deaf children probably represent from about 65 to 90 percent of the enrollment of a school. Of this group, probably 80 to 85 percent have varying degrees of sound perception. With this group our objectives should be chiefly the development of better speech, speech reading, and the utilization of a reinforcing avenue of approach in the learning situation. The question arises as to what part of this group can receive practical benefit from hearing aids. In general, those who have the smallest loss should benefit the most. However, this is conditioned by other factors such as character of loss, mentality, personality, interest, and language background. Where can we draw the line? Considering the time and money expended, I do not believe it is practical in general to go below a loss of 65 or 70 percent. Undoubtedly some results can be obtained among certain pupils with a greater loss. But the results do not warrant the expenditure, which at all times must be weighed against other needs of the school. It must be kept in mind, too, that school time is precious to the deaf child, and our primary responsibility is to provide him with a general education.

The problems of selecting and grouping pupils to use group hearing aids are very great. In the smaller school it is difficult enough to classify pupils on the basis of educational achievement without superimposing an additional classification on the basis of ability to benefit from such training. Individual aids are of value here, and should supplement group aids. When the number of group aids is limited, should they be made available for short periods to a large number or for the full-time use of a class group? The latter seems more likely to afford real results whereas short periods a day will not be very effective for anyone. The greatest benefit may also result from the selection of a suitable young group to use a group aid through school, thus affording the greatest possible development. As more aids are secured more classes could be put on this permanent basis.

Use of a hearing aid with deaf children should not take the place of time-tried methods of developing speech. There is no short cut to good speech. The hearing aid should be used in conjunction with present speech methods. It is of great value in rhythm, voice quality, accent, phrasing, and the other aspects of good speech. Children with good sound perception can undoubtedly get a great deal through imitation of the teacher. They also can be taught to distinguish a large number of words, phrases, and short sentences, although too much emphasis should not be placed on this type of drill. Pupils who have learned to respond in a limited way to such sound patterns should not be confused with hard-of-hearing children. Too often parents and others feel that because "Johnnie" can understand some

spoken words or short sentences all that is needed is a hearing aid and "Johnnie" will get all the conversation around him.

We should be clear in our objectives here. We are not attempting to transform the deaf child with sound perception into a hard-of-hearing child. He does not have a natural language background, but must receive formal instruction in language and speech. Auricular training will reinforce this teaching. But the ability to interpret a number of words, phrases or short sentences should not be confused with the instantaneous understanding of normal language. There is a language interpretation handicap present as well as a physical auditory handicap for the deaf child with sound perception.

There is the possibility that a young child who loses a large part of his hearing after acquiring language will later be classed as a deaf child with sound perception unless he receives early and continuous training. An early beginning in auricular training is important. It might be well to indicate here the caution needed in classifying young children. At best it is difficult to get an accurate audiogram for them, and to determine other factors in connection with hearing. We can never be positive about what such young children are capable of doing. Ideally it might be well to have hearing aids available for all young children during the first several years in school until more is known about their responses to auricular training. Caution should be exercised in the use of aids with younger children so that too much amplification is not damaging their ears, nor too long exposure unduly fatiguing them.

The importance of the teacher should be emphasized, for the hearing aid is simply one of the avenues by which the teacher reaches the pupil. The success of any teaching tool or method depends largely on the teacher. Teaching with a group hearing aid requires study, hard work, patience, persistence, and originality. The teacher must have her objectives clearly in mind. She must study each child as an individual, for no two children will present the same combination of factors affecting auricular training.

She must vary her teaching method to suit the individual pupils in her class. There seems to be little definite knowledge as to what is the best method of utilizing hearing aids for speech work. Whether the teacher will use phonetic drills, word drills, or unanalyzed speech, and how she will develop her program will depend in part on the type of children. Much more information is needed on the best procedures. At present a teacher must depend on her experience and originality combined with the experience of others.

In fact we need to know a great deal more about the whole subject of hearing aids and their use with sound perception children. We are not sure of their possibilities nor of their practical limitations. Nor do we know the most effective methods of teaching with them. Undoubtedly, hearing aids are of value to the child with usable sound perception in the development of speech and speech reading, and as a stimulant to his educational and social development. They are of great value to the hard-of-hearing child in helping him acquire an education in a more normal way and in helping him develop a fuller personality. We should not overlook these values just because funds limit us to a small start and slow expansion. It is often even advantageous to move more slowly along new lines. But the possibilities

are there and we should proceed to analyze and develop them effectively through continued research and experience.

SPEECH AND SPEECH READING IN THE INTERMEDIATE DEPARTMENT

(JULIET A. McDERMOTT, Georgia School)

At the Georgia School for the Deaf we aim to develop understandable and pleasant speech for all and to develop the desire and ability to read the average person's lips.

If we look around us, we see that the people who enjoy dancing are the people who dance well, the people who like bridge are the people who play well and so on. We can draw the conclusion if we want the deaf to talk, we must teach them to talk well and furthermore we must provide topics for conversation.

Many months ago I asked one of my classes what there was about speech that they didn't like. They named:

I. Tongue gymnastics.

II. Combinations.

III. Writing the consonants and vowels with all their spellings.

IV. Failure of strangers to understand their speech.

After much study I found substitutes for these dislikes of our children. Directed play can be substituted for tongue gymnastics, panting, breathing exercises, and so forth. Physical directors know now that individual biological mechanisms are so related to each other that one bodily function may readily influence any other or the organism as a whole. The Georgia State Department of Education has published a free manual called *Play in Education* that lists activities suitable to all ages.

I have never believed that combinations were necessary in producing good speech so it delighted me to have the children list them among their aversions. Why spend hours working on combinations when we all know how badly vocabulary needs to be increased and how thrilled most children are to add to their limited number of words?

Our experiments have given conclusive evidence that vowels are best presented to small children through Alcorn symbols. If during the first few years in school children make dictionaries in which all new words are presented by means of symbols, it is but a simple step to substitute the diacritical marks of the dictionary for them. We were well aware that a specific dictionary had to be selected, as well as one in which meanings were easily understood by the deaf child. Careful study of available dictionaries resulted in the choice of Thorndike's *Century Junior Dictionary* which substituted only 17 vowels for the complicated vowel chart. Under the old method the deaf child was dependent upon his teacher for pronunciation, spelling, and meaning of all words. It is obvious that one can carry a dictionary through one's life more easily than one can a teacher of phonetics.

Curiosity of hearing people about abnormal things has led them to place deaf children in a very trying position because their curiosity pertains only to their own satisfaction and tends to embarrass the deaf speaker so that self-consciousness causes even speech that is

normal to become strained and incomprehensible. So long as schools for the deaf are considered institutions apart from the hearing world where the general public comes in contact with them only through accident, we cannot hope to establish self-confidence and poise for our children among these strangers.

It is possible to overcome the effect of this situation only by destroying the situation. The problem that faces us is how to do this. This can be done only if greater contact is established between the hearing and the deaf. We have established this contact by means of various activities. The following are some of these activities:

- I. Social activities:
 - A. Attendance of hearing people at parties and dances for the deaf and attendance of the deaf at parties and dances for the hearing.
 - B. Deaf children are encouraged by hearing members of the faculty to visit their homes and assist in entertaining hearing people who are strangers to them.
 - C. Pupils are led to compete with hearing children in school exhibits and contests.
- II. Athletic activities:
 - A. Active competition with schools for the hearing in the following sports:
 - 1. Football.
 - 2. Basketball.
 - 3. Baseball.
 - 4. Softball.
 - 5. Track.
 - 6. Swimming.
- III. Religious activities:
 - A. Sunday-school classes for the deaf in churches.
 - B. Oral participation of the deaf on programs of the hearing.
 - C. Regular attendance at church by the pupil body.
- IV. Academic activities:
 - A. Plays given as public performances.
 - B. Chapel programs arranged for hearing audiences.
 - C. Public rallies of school spirit.
 - D. Programs given by pupils at both men's and women's clubs.
- V. Miscellaneous activities:
 - A. Academic clubs.
 - B. Vocational clubs.
 - C. Hobby clubs.
 - D. School publications.
 - E. Cheering squads including all the pupils.
 - F. Military-drill squads.
 - G. Boy Scouts.
 - H. School orchestra.
 - I. Cooperation of pupils with public on charity drives.
 - J. Pupil government.

Children are allowed 5 years in our intermediate department. Each one of these years is divided into six 6-weeks periods. We have made this tentative plan for what shall be taught during these 5 years. We have included many subjects that had no place at all in the old curriculum, but are subjects that we feel will give the deaf a more enjoyable life.

First year:

- 1. Dictionary unit.
- 2. Football unit.
- 3. Home unit.
- 4. Mother Goose rhyme unit.
- 5. Color-appreciation unit.
- 6. Flower unit.

Second year:

1. Circus unit.
2. Clothing unit.
3. Basketball unit.
4. Parlor games unit.
5. Mother Goose rhymes unit.
6. Vegetable unit.

Third year:

1. School unit.
2. Good manners unit.
3. Grooming unit.
4. Cooking unit.
5. Baseball unit.
6. Tree unit.

Fourth year:

1. Riddles, jokes, and cartoons unit.
2. Fairy-tale unit.
3. Health unit.
4. Card games, checkers, dominoes unit.
5. Bird unit.
6. Professional-guidance unit.

Fifth year:

1. Famous men and women unit.
2. Patriotism unit.
3. Citizenship unit.
4. Fable unit.
5. Famous cities unit.
6. General information unit.

Units that go on during the 5 years in the intermediate department are (1) news, (2) songs, (3) famous pictures, (4) movies, (5) plays, (6) famous poems and sayings, (7) Bible verses and stories.

The audiometer tests in our intermediate and advanced departments showed us that our children averaged 80 percent loss in hearing. When given the audiometer-hearing-aid test, our children averaged only 30 percent loss in hearing. However, this gained hearing is of no advantage unless it can be trained so that the children recognize sounds as words.

We have found that our hearing aid, a Western Electric set with 12 individually controlled headphones, has helped us greatly in improving the quality of our children's voices. Even our babies notice the difference between men's and women's voices.

In working with the hearing aid we start every period with music, to stimulate hearing. Then we work on new words and phrases that have come up in classroom teaching. We end every period with music, too, because music leaves a more pleasant memory than drill work. Our boys and girls are very fond of college songs. While on the grounds one day after school, I heard one of them say, "I'm a rambling wreck from Georgia Tech and a heck of an engineer." A natural phrase like that makes one feel that the time spent at the hearing aid was justified.

By the means that I have named, speech is simplified; reteaching in more advanced departments is abolished; and logic replaces the old-fashioned struggle which formerly took years and produced ineffective results.

We realize our aim to develop understandable and pleasant speech for all is high, but interest and results obtained in the past 2 years have more than justified our faith in the future.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Leader: Dr. Tom L. Anderson, principal, vocational department, Iowa School; chairman, Arthur G. Norris, vocational principal, Missouri School.

Theme: What of the Future?

Subject: A Need and a Plan for Its Solution.

Panel discussion: Dr. Tom L. Anderson, vocational principal, Iowa School; Harvey B. Barnes, vocational supervisor, Illinois School; Dewey Coats, instructor in woodworking, Missouri School; Charles B. Grow, vocational principal, Kentucky School; Glenn I. Harris, supervising teacher, industrial department, Colorado School; Paul Kinder, State supervisor, vocational rehabilitation, Missouri; Howard M. Quigley, superintendent, Kansas School; Lang Russel, vocational principal, Louisiana School; Carl F. Smith, vocational principal, Minnesota School; Robert E. Thomas, specialist, United States Office of Education; and Arthur G. Norris, vocational principal, Missouri School, presiding.

Opening the vocational section meeting, Mr. Arthur G. Norris set forth the aim of the meeting: "To provoke thought and discussion on the subject of A Need and a Plan for Its Solution."

The first portion of the subject was discussed under the heading of "The Need." Mr. Norris stated that the object was to point out the weaknesses of the present vocational plan. The first question put before the meeting was, What are our weaknesses in the way of facilities and equipment for teaching? Have we kept up with the schools-for-hearing pupils in the matter of equipment?

Mr. Harvey Barnes stated that schools for the deaf have not kept up with the schools for the hearing, particularly in vocational work. "There is too much equipment and not enough plan for teaching industrial arts," he stated. "For all vocational training there is a need for prevocational training. That training need consists of knowledge of the use of the tools and to learn to follow instructions. The general objects of advanced vocational training are different."

Dr. Tom L. Anderson stated that public schools feature metalwork, while the schools for the deaf have only the basic trades—woodworking and leatherworking. "Most of the public schools are in a position to train pupils in metalworking. They make an impressive showing and seem to put the schools for the deaf 'in the shade.' The cost of equipment for metalworking is very expensive. To justify the introduction of this trade, there must be a surety that the equipment will pay dividends."

Mr. Norris: "Are we agreed then that as far as our vocational program is now set up that we are very well equipped?"

Mr. Lang Russel stated that he thought that the equipment was adequate, since the newer trades have not been put in as yet. The vocational program has not gone far enough.

Mr. Norris: "Mr. Thomas, do you think that the metalwork might offer opportunities for deaf people?"

Mr. Thomas: "In automobile-repair work there are many opportunities for an experienced deaf worker in metal."

Mr. Kinder told of his having taken a Missouri School deaf boy to a garage to learn metalworking. The boy was a satisfactory employee and the employer would like to have other deaf workers in this field.

Mr. Norris: "Which of the metal trades should we have—all or only a part of them?"

Mr. Barnes: "If teaching is to give variety, all should be taught. Different parts of the country and different pupils need different types

of metalwork. We should give the boys the opportunity. The pupils do not at the present time stay in one part of the country as they did in the past. They move around more than before."

Mr. Norris: "Which vocational subject could be dropped to put in metalwork? There seems to be a need for it because of the change in times."

Dr. Anderson: "Can our pupils obtain work in welding?" (Question following a suggestion from audience that there was a good field in welding.) "Obtaining work will not depend entirely upon ability and skill. Will they be permitted to do this type of work?"

Mr. Coats: "In nearly every trade you can think of the deaf are permitted to work. There is a great deal of talk about refusing to let them work, but in most cases there is nothing done about it. Deaf workers are satisfactory workers where hearing is not a necessity."

Mr. Barnes: "No one suggested dropping our present established trades. Localities have a great deal to do with the importance of the trades."

Mr. Norris: "What about adding agriculture to our vocational training, particularly in the South?"

Mr. Russel: "There is a great need for training in agriculture in the South. I would suggest that you drop no trade but raise the standard so as to produce better-equipped students. The trade in mind is printing. There are too many who do not reach a high-enough standard."

Dr. Anderson: "In adding agriculture, the first problem to be overcome is rotating it in the general school plan. We are not free to take a pupil and teach him one thing and nothing else. Agriculture does not rotate with the academic program as well as other trades which are now in the vocational department. Agriculture must have a definite half day for that alone. Nothing can be accomplished in a short period of time. Even with 2 hours, how much practical training can the pupils get? Take it up in school as a postgraduate course. Another problem is that weather interferes with the work. During the winter there can be very little work done; during the summer the pupils are at home. There are many problems in the teaching of agriculture. Each State should have to work out its own problems. There cannot be any set standard way of teaching it."

Mr. E. R. Wright (superintendent, Texas School): "Agriculture should be taught to special students. Give them 4 hours of work and limit their academic training. This is true in all vocational subjects. Texas has added three new trades—vocational agriculture, barbering, fender and body repair work. Unless you can map a program and decide yourself what to drop, you will have to leave it to the superintendent to decide."

Dr. Anderson: "What about the teacher who has taught for so long a time? Can he be transferred to another vocational training? The teacher is a part of the permanent equipment of the school."

Mr. Wright: "The teacher could be dismissed very easily."

Dr. Anderson: "The teacher has a right to hold his position as long as he gives satisfactory service. Is the superintendent more concerned with the teacher being on the pay roll than with what the student is getting?"

Mr. Barnes: "We are not ready for it. I believe that some of the trades should be abolished. Each teacher is going to come to the

defense of the teacher who is being dismissed. The dismissal of a teacher should come after a general survey."

Mr. Wenger (Utah School): "Teach farm carpentry in the winter and harness working. There are great opportunities in these fields. There are always some repairs necessary."

Mr. Smith: "To solve these problems we must first define the question, What do we intend to teach? Instead of discharging, we need to employ more teachers. They can still teach skills. Why not hire the deaf students instead of hearing men? Why not teach agriculture in the summer? Why close the school in the summer? Use the 9 months' period and also the 3 months' period for teaching the vocational subjects."

SOCIAL AND CHARACTER TRAINING

Leader: Rae Martino, Waterbury, Conn., chairman; Alfred Cranwill, principal, Michigan School.

Address: Character Education, Harley Z. Wooden, superintendent, Michigan School.

Panel discussion: Lillian R. Jones, principal, primary department, Louisiana School; Lula B. Highsmith, Florida School; W. Burton Moore, Missouri School; John A. Gough, superintendent, Oklahoma School; Boyce R. Williams, vocational principal, Indiana School.

Paper: A Tool for Cultivation of Character, Boyce R. Williams.

CHARACTER EDUCATION

(HARLEY Z. WOODEN, superintendent, Michigan School)

Members of the panel, and co-workers. We have a panel here this morning, whom I know you are going to be interested in hearing discuss this subject of character education. Inasmuch as we have only 40 minutes for the entire proceedings, I shall try very hastily to tack up a few "pegs" on which these panel members may hang their ideas of (1) what constitutes character education, and (2) the ways in which it may be obtained.

Character, to me, is a whole lot more than a matter of morality or social-mindedness. It involves the integrity, the honesty, the dependability, the industriousness, and the other related characteristics that go to make up a desirable type of citizen. Character education implies, and rightfully so, that to develop character there must be a process of education. We cannot obtain character incidentally, either with hearing or with deaf children. No child is born good or bad. He gets that way largely through his environment of home, school, and community. This places upon our residential schools for the deaf, which have supervision of their pupils 24 hours of the day, a tremendous responsibility for creating the right kind of environment.

The first aspect of environment that I should like to discuss is that of security in an adult. Every child needs, perhaps more than anything else, a feeling of deep security in one or two adults whom he loves and in whom he has the utmost of confidence. He needs to have a person to whom he can go and tell all of his troubles and all of his fears, and who in turn will understand him, and will give him genuine affection and guidance. It has been claimed by some authorities that juvenile delinquency correlates more highly, statistically, with lack

of security in an adult than it does with any other single factor, not excepting broken homes or slum communities. Teachers, neighbors, and others can, of course, contribute toward a child's security, but only those that take care of him—those with whom he lives and makes his home—are in a position to meet adequately that most urgent need.

In the case of a residential school the problem of providing this security to the child naturally belongs to the house parents. The number of children that a house parent has under his or her supervision will determine to a large extent the amount of individual attention that can be given to each child. Unfortunately, in many of our schools, a scarcity of funds has made us feel compelled to load the house parents to the point where they become scarcely more than "keepers" of the children. Under such conditions, they can do little toward furnishing the guidance, affection, and security so necessary to the program. Consequently, one of the first essentials to an improved character-building program in most residential schools for the deaf is an increased number of properly trained house parents.

The second aspect of environment that I wish to discuss is its consistency. Everyone in the school, including all classes of employees, must be familiar with the established policies governing the care, duties, and privileges of the children and the restrictions placed upon them. No child should be able to commit a piece of mischief with the knowledge of any employee and get away with it. Apprehension in itself is of no particular significance if the child is able to go from place to place about the buildings and grounds repeating his attempts to satisfy antisocial desires and purposes. If he never becomes responsible for such acts, then his conduct becomes a game of "hide and seek" with the house parents and administration, and his occasional detection serves only as a momentary inconvenience that encourages him to improve upon his methods and techniques.

At one time I had the opportunity to work with delinquent children in the regular public schools. Early symptoms of delinquency frequently took the form of pilfering from 5- and 10-cent stores. The managers of these stores accepted such incidents as inevitable and did little to cooperate in any plan of prevention or correction. When a child was apprehended in one store he merely transferred his activities to another. Consequently, each case of apprehension served as a lesson on "what not to do" at the next place, with the result that the child tended to become a more proficient unsocial or antisocial being. Consequently social rehabilitation in the face of this effective training in delinquency and in the face of the usual deplorable and unstable home conditions was a difficult task.

In our residential schools for the deaf we are in lesser degree confronted with a similar situation. Children under inadequately supervised programs—programs in which irresponsibility is allowed to grow and develop simply because house parents are too few to give guidance and security, and in which other employees are unconcerned—makes impossible either preventative measures against, or proper treatment of those unsocial activities in which almost any active wide-awake child is likely to become involved. As a result many deaf children do not learn during their formative years to understand simple everyday conventions of right and wrong, thereby growing into young adult-

hood with infantile habits of irresponsibility that are a discredit to their other grown-up abilities and skills.

The third aspect of environment that I wish to discuss is that of experience. We cannot teach a youngster character by simply telling him what are the proper things to do and then watching him closely to see that he does them. It does not matter how many times we tell a child what he should do; unless that youngster experiences within himself the doing of the right thing, no positive character has been established.

In other words, we acquire character in much the same way that we acquire arithmetic. We must experience the solution of problems in arithmetic in order to master that skill; likewise we must experience the solution of problems in character education in order to master our own character development. If the child experiences these problems, and is always coming to the wrong answer, then he will likely go out and continue to come to wrong answers in later life. If, however, we can give him the means and satisfaction of arriving at correct answers a great majority of the time, we will have established in him the necessary experience background for the conduct of his own life.

Let us suppose, for example, that we wish to teach a child to be honest. Talks and instructions on honesty will do but little good, because they involve no personal experience for him, but with an opportunity to participate in an activity in which a choice of action is involved, the situation becomes real and the results can be evaluated. Hearing children living under normal home conditions have many such experience situations. One would be that of going to a store to make a purchase. The child would first need to learn to get to the store and to spend the money for the right article; not for candy, ice cream, or some plaything. Second, he would have to get that article home in good condition without misappropriating its use to satisfy his own purposes. Third, he would have to make an accurate accounting of the change, if any were involved.

A residential school does not readily lend itself to such experiences; nevertheless the opportunity should be created. Deaf children should be taught to handle and deliver money and other articles of value. A house parent working with a child might send him on errands about the campus in which money transactions would be involved. On another occasion the house parent and the child together might "accidentally" find some money or a toy, and from such "finding" set up the problem of locating the rightful owner. This latter type of experience involves more than the training of the intellectual processes; it involves the emotions as well. There is the thrill of seeing the happiness and appreciation on the part of the child or adult whose "lost" article has been returned, and there is the satisfaction that comes from the compliments and commendations that should be bestowed upon the child for having correctly solved a problem of what to do with a found article.

Likewise in children's play, "fair play" should be included as an integral part of the instructions of the game. A game that is worth the effort must provide some emotional satisfaction. If the child understands the spirit of the game and the rules that govern it, he can get that experience from his efforts to excel and to be successful within the limits of the rules. On the other hand, if the game is

introduced without proper attention to fair play, his only visible means of satisfaction is that of winning, consequently winning to him becomes paramount. Under such circumstances, a correction or reprimand for unfair play is a belated and negative method of teaching honesty. To tempt children to make wrong decisions, by failing to provide them with proper incentives from which to make right ones, is to encourage the opposite reaction from the one desired.

This leads us to a final word on this subject of honesty. If a child may be tempted to play a game unfairly, how much more likely is he to be tempted on the matter of material possessions? In other words, to develop a respect for the property and possessions of others and to resist the temptation of misappropriating such for himself, he must experience a reasonable amount of satisfaction in personal possessions of his own. A child in a residential school should possess toys and all sorts of playthings that belong to him, personally, not just have the privilege of playing with toys that belong to the school. Respect for public property is difficult enough to obtain without intensifying the problem through the communization of children's playthings.

In my opening remarks I indicated that our time today would not permit an exhaustive treatment of this subject on character education. There are many aspects of it that of necessity have been left unmentioned. The one point that I have tried to stress for the consideration of the members of this panel is the fact that environment rather than heredity or any other physiological factor is the prime determinant in character building. If our graduates are not sufficiently honest, dependable, industrious, moral, and social-minded to make as good desirable citizens as society has a right to expect, then it is because we have failed to create for them a proper environment in which to develop those characteristics. To me this is the great challenge of the residential school for the deaf.

DISCUSSION

Mrs. L. R. JONES. Mr. Wooden's remarks on the importance of allowing no exceptions in the formation of correct patterns of behavior seem of especial importance to me. I feel keenly that one of the most valuable means of establishing correct habits is to have our children definitely aware of the fact that all those who are responsible for their welfare—superintendent, principal, teacher, and supervisor—are well agreed as to what attitudes and actions best promote that welfare, and that this group will work together with one accord to seek that end.

The activities of the schoolroom, the recreation room, the playground, and the dormitory may differ widely, but even the youngest child may learn that desirable attitudes and behavior on his part at any time elicit a response from any of the adult members of his group that brings satisfaction to him, and that undesirable activities are noted and not approved. He should definitely learn what is expected of him—basic attitudes, and even some particular rules, and should just as definitely know that he is expected to measure up to such standards.

Most of us recognize the fact that the endless multiplying of rules in our dealings with children, is utter folly, but certainly there are

rules and regulations with which we must all conform. Staff members and pupils alike should be conversant with the regulations necessary for the smooth functioning of the school, and care should be taken to see that the pupils themselves, within reason, understand why such rules are made.

Too much has already happened to our average pupil that he has not been able to understand. His infancy and early childhood with such extremely limited means of communication with the world about him, the shock of his transfer from the small home group to life in the dormitory, with the necessity of conforming with all the routine that such a transfer necessarily involves—these he has experienced with none of the alleviating knowledge that language perception could bring. He needs, even more than his brother or sister at home, the feeling of security which is so inherently the right of childhood. He should by all means be made to feel firmly established in a stable, well-comprehended setting.

And if the prevalence of uneven standards within a home presents such a problem in the proper adjustment of the child within that home, a unity of authority seems even more important to the deaf children in our care in schools. The knowledge that certain activities are acceptable in free time, but are not permissible in periods set aside for school work, study, or sleep, is hard to achieve. But the feeling that one adult member of the school group habitually condones, overlooks, or neglects infringements of good taste, or a falling short of accepted standards, where another on a similar occasion insists upon correct behavior patterns, raises a large question in the mind of the child as to the importance of maintaining standards, since they seem to appear so unequally evaluated by the older persons with whom he is in daily contact.

Marked deviation from accepted behavior patterns should be the concern of any adult member of the school group. Our children should feel that all those in whom they place their confidence do believe in, maintain, and expect definite and uniform standards of conduct from them. And by permitting no exceptions, at any time, we will much more readily establish correct patterns of behavior, as Mr. Wooden has previously said.

Miss L. B. HIGHSMITH. Character education must receive the attention of everyone who deals with the deaf child. I feel sure that classroom teachers recognize and welcome its place in their contact with their pupils.

In many ways the teacher finds opportunities to present character training. In our residential schools religious instruction is given. This material is, of course, the very basis of our moral code, and its presentation offers the opportunity as well as the obligation to acquaint our pupils with the precepts of the Bible. Many teachers of the deaf have found that their pupils, properly trained, are more respectful than hearing children to the authority of the Bible. Besides the actual period for religious instruction, the teacher finds many occasions to show worth-while character traits in the material presented by readers. Often these characteristics are stressed in the reader as those of a good citizen. The study of the story of civilization leads pupils to see the importance of constructive, useful living as they realize the debt they owe to their predecessors and the obligation to

their successors. Further, through every kind of expression in spoken or written language the child shows what is going on inside of him, and frequently the teacher sees good attitudes which his encouragement can strengthen and bad ones that careful explanation and help can correct.

Given these opportunities and the countless others which come when pupils voluntarily seek advice from a sympathetic teacher, the classroom teacher has two responsibilities in character education. The first is to give opportunities for the practice of every possible right principle. Certain qualities do not necessarily present themselves in the classroom, but many others do. During that part of the day when the teacher is responsible for the children, pupils must be given occasions to be positively helpful, democratic, courteous, orderly, conscientious, honest, and industrious, and their behavior in desirable ways must come from the increasingly high standard which the child sets for himself as well as from the effectiveness of our discipline. That practice is a vital part of the development of character is readily recognized, for almost every teacher has known a pupil who sat in class and nodded agreement when a moral principle was being expounded and who flagrantly violated that principle in conduct. Whenever possible we must give opportunity for free choice and for repetition of desirable behavior.

The teacher's second responsibility to the character training of his pupils is that of giving explanation of right conduct. All of us realize that deaf children do not absorb unconsciously so many facts as do normal children. Why, then, do we expect them to know without being told exactly what is right and what is wrong? For instance, a child who would not copy from another pupil's paper on a test because it was not honest might copy the language from a book and give the impression that it was his own because he did not see that that also was not honest. We must make clear, frequent, and detailed explanations of the standards we urge our pupils to live by.

Through his provision of many occasions for the practice of good behavior, through his careful explanation of right principles, and, further, through the inspiration given by his interest and good example, the classroom teacher can have a vital part in leading each child to a satisfactory set of values actually incorporated in his living.

Mr. W. BURTON MOORE. Mr. Wooden gave a definition of character. I noted another one here: "Character is that phase of one's personality which indicates his adjustment to social standards." This adjustment depends upon the adult leadership and supervision.

Of course, that is where we instructors of the deaf step into the picture. Wherever there is a social situation there are positive and negative possibilities, either one or the other, and of course, it is up to us to see that these negative possibilities do not come into play. Even under our leadership, I will say, character must be caught instead of taught. You cannot standardize the characteristics of children, and those opportunities must be provided in which character building can be caught or taught, whichever you may express it. I like to express it as being caught.

One educator has expressed these opportunities as being teachable moments. I believe we would all be glad if we had the ability to put our finger on every situation where it would be possible to teach

character and to know when we did teach character. I think that about all we can do is provide the situation where there is a strong possibility of character building.

I might say that there is one teachable moment, which is so recurrent that it is almost continuous, and that is the occasion when a child wants activity. It is natural for children to want to be active, and there is a valuable opportunity for us to teach character in helping that child to choose the right sort of activity. The choice of the activity must be directed and supervised. If a child steals third base, that is correct; there is a possibility of character being taught. But, if he steals some money from the candy store, then that is not so good.

Of course, another teachable moment is that when the child is idle. I believe it is up to us to provide opportunity for cooperation and leadership and wholesome activity. Another opportunity to teach character is the desire of the child to seek a thrill.

You have all read about criminals. Criminals are thrill seekers. That craving must be satisfied in some wholesome activity, or the child is liable to go the wrong way. For instance, if you see that he gets on a football team and has some other wholesome activity in which he can satisfy that craving, there will be an excellent chance to build character.

When a child deserves punishment, and knows that he deserves punishment, and he gets it in the proper amount, then that is another teachable moment of character. If he is not punished in a sufficient amount or the punishment is not just, then he is liable to try the same misdemeanor again and go the wrong way.

Another opportunity arises when a child is lonely. We have that situation frequently in schools for the deaf. It is up to us to provide wholesome play situations and play activities so that the child has a chance to develop it in the right way. One point that I might mention that many of us do in simple little games, and that is let the children choose sides. That is one of the worst things we can do, I think, because here is Johnny who is little and weak, the poorest one of the group, and he is chosen last. In that way he is given the feeling that he is not wanted. That is a bad situation, and the child is liable to have some harm done to him that he won't get over.

Mr. JOHN A. GOUGH. Mr. Wooden has mentioned the fact that we have a great responsibility in character education and development because of the fact that we have children 24 hours of the day in the residential school. With this point we are in general accord, but, at the same time, the situation offers a great challenge and opportunity to us.

May we go back a little further than the beginning of the discussion this morning to a thought which the speaker last night left with us regarding the great change in life which has occurred in the transition from pioneer days to the present time? In those days character was developed because of the fact that children early learned to work and to participate in the home situation as producers. Doesn't the same opportunity exist in the school for the deaf today? We have a multitude of opportunities for services which the children can render, and it was of this, I think, that Superintendent Wooden spoke when he mentioned this business of experience. We certainly must achieve character development by doing.

The other day, in thinking over this subject, I ran over our pay roll to see how many of the jobs for which we are now paying might be done by the pupils themselves, and I was somewhat shocked to find that very likely we could save 10 percent of our paid positions by better utilization of the capacities of our older boys and girls. By promoting and extending the opportunities for service, for work, for taking part in the family responsibilities in the school we can offer an opportunity for character development such as has never yet been exploited.

There is an observable tendency on the part of vocational teachers—and please understand that I have no quarrel with vocational teachers—to clamor for more time and for relief from maintenance work around the school. From the point of view of character education, is this a wise and justifiable course? Are we not losing something of paramount importance when we relieve children of a great many of the opportunities for service that exist in every school?

It seems to me that it is not only bad economy but bad education to shift from the children all major responsibilities of work in the school. Too often we develop artificial types of activity for them when there are real, living jobs around the school that might be performed by the pupils with more beneficial results. In so doing the idea of service to others is impressed on them. Unselfish productiveness develops sterling attributes of character for which we are striving above everything else.

MR. BOYCE R. WILLIAMS. I think we should remember that we have in our schools a number of children who are inferior mentally. I believe if you will recall the disciplinary problems you have had you will agree that many of them arise from those who are mentally below normal. We should remember that those inferior mentally are creatures of habit. I think that our task is to instill good habits. At the same time we should not forget that we are dealing with adolescence and we should not measure our children by the yardstick of adulthood. We should not be too exacting.

I have a pet word, which is "opportunity." So many times I have heard educators of the deaf say that the deaf have no initiative. They lack this; they lack that. I do not agree with that. I think that they have all of the attributes any human being has if they are given the opportunity to show them. Opportunity without guidance may, of course, lead to maladjustment, but it is our job to create the opportunity and provide the guidance to lead toward desirable results.

MRS. JONES. I wonder if Mr. Gough can suggest where we are to find the extra time for the duties he has mentioned.

MR. GOUGH. I think that is a well-taken point. We find our program crowded all of the time, but one conceivable solution is this. The possibility of effecting economies by putting more work on the children has been mentioned. If that is true, then that economy might be plowed back into a lengthened school term so that there would be more time available. There is a need, too, for a reorientation and reorganization of our thinking and planning of the work so that the youngsters' effort will be concentrated and more like real job experience in order that they may learn ideas of promptness, sticking to it, and all those things that go to make up the idea of service. By concentrating the work in shorter, more intensive periods and extending the school term a little longer, the time element could be taken care of. But even if this cannot be accomplished in this way, I think it

would be worth some sacrifice of other interests, in order to develop character. If they fail to get that, all the rest amounts to little or nothing.

Mr. CRANWILL. I shall attempt to summarize the expressions of the members of the panel so we can close on time. As one of the members of the panel expressed it, there seems to be agreement as to just how this matter of social and character education should be handled. You will note that none of it is to be done in the old formal way.

There seems to be an emphasis on the need for consistency of our environment in order to provide our children with the opportunities for developing desirable character patterns. There is also an emphasis on the matter of allowing our children to experience the various activities in our set-up, in our residential schools particularly, in order to develop naturally on the job or in the activity or even during idleness, the attributes of good character.

I also noted, as you did, no doubt, that both the classroom teacher and the house parent or supervisor, or counselor in the home department, have an equal responsibility. There may be room for argument as to which one has the greater responsibility. But, I think the assumption here is that it is fair to take it that they both at least have an equal responsibility and not only they, but every member of our institutional staff; also, the idea that our environment should be one of teaching the children, or as Mr. Moore would put it, something for the children to catch from that environment that will develop their character along desirable lines.

I want to thank Mr. Wooden, who opened the panel, and also the members of the panel, for their contribution; also, Mrs. W. L. Fair, of the Kansas School, for her splendid work in interpreting.

There is now to be considered a paper by Mr. Williams.

A TOOL FOR CULTIVATION OF CHARACTER

(BOYCE R. WILLIAMS, vocational principal, Indiana School)

I am not going to take up your time philosophizing upon how necessary character is to success. Nor am I going to add to your staggering load of definitions of character, definitions which have accumulated and multiplied like the amoeba down through the years. I have assumed that each of you has his own philosophy and definition concerning character and its desirable state.

John Dewey has told us that a philosophy which sheds no light upon the path, which just tells us what should be and says not how, is relatively useless. An illustrious coworker and disciple of Dewey has personalized this idea as follows: "A philosopher is a blind man in a dark cellar looking for a black cat that isn't there." Needless to say, the gentleman quoted abhors the practice of serving up beautiful ideas minus the cutlery of realism, even as you and I. Hence, I should like to present for your consideration an item which we optimistic Hoosiers believe is a practical contribution to character growth in the vocational area, in fact in any area in which similar application is made.

Before doing that, I should like to present a challenge. Too often many of us resignedly discard our worthy ideas with the thought,

"That would be fine if we only had the money, the personnel, or the equipment, etc., that other schools have." This attitude of defeatism is the most unaccountable, unnecessary, and dangerous barrier to normal progress that our program faces. A good farmer does not throw down his tools simply because the fellow down the road has raised a better crop on better soil. Diametrically, he applies himself even more energetically to get the most out of the soil he has, after adopting the seed and methods of his neighbor. More fortunate are those who seize upon these ideas and attempt by what means they have available to incorporate them into their own programs. The ancient maxim, "Where there's a will, there's a way," is just as good as any 1941 model. Instead of bemoaning the inadequacy of our personnel and equipment, the shortage of finances (things which are apt to get no better fast), rather should we search out our assets, and, with them as our foundation, build to the limits they allow. The building process is very likely to uncover more assets which will allow still further building. As an illustration, I should like with your permission, to relate a personal experience. A group of us at Teachers College were assigned a difficult educational problem involving a consideration of the needed changes in a given system. Now let me tell you we really worked at that. After spending the whole night working on it, we went to class convinced that we had an excellent solution, although somewhat expensive and revolutionary in that it provided for great expansion in plant, equipment, and personnel. The professor quickly disillusioned us with the information that a practical solution to the problem involved a minimum of change in existing personnel, plant, and equipment. His admonition was that we should utilize fully whatever resources our respective institutions offered.

Through intelligent leadership guiding the professional growth of teachers in service we could get a start toward realization of our objectives. The good start, with continued intelligent leadership, would lead gradually to the ideal situation implied in the thesis. It was a case of not being able to see the forest for the trees. We did not take into consideration that an educational system is a practical thing which must make use of what it has. We were in reality abandoning all thought of incorporation of the changes needed unless we could get the thousands of dollars necessary for our solution. Isn't that true of many of us in our daily work? "If only we had this, or that," and so forth, are common expressions amongst us. All this is not intended to imply that the status quo in our schools is satisfactory in equipment, plant, and personnel. It is merely a plea not to pigeon-hole your good intentions while waiting for the legislature to supply the cash.

The following is an educational tool which we have found very useful in developing character.

Our vocational analysis card, sent out quarterly, is one of our greatest assets for character development primarily because it makes the student conscious of his needs. It is not necessary to point out that the feeling of need is the progenitor of effective action. This tool, modeled after those in use in several of our schools, is significant in character development not so much because it lists the personal characteristics which our teachers think are essential, but because of the way it is used. It is the product of a long series of faculty meetings

at which numerous cards were reviewed and many ideas suggested. Our teachers feel, and rightly, that it is their own card. Hence, it is not necessary to solicit or command their cooperation. In drafting it we resolved to get away from unintelligible, unrevealing figures, or letters. Thus, the 14 items listed are rated in adjoining columns by descriptive words. It has been a most difficult task to assign the proper weight to a given descriptive word. Common usage has been our chief guide. We feel that there is considerable room for improvement in this aspect of the card. Consequently, we repeatedly analyze it with a view to increasing its validity. The fact that the pupils themselves suggest changes is further evidence that it is vitally important in making them conscious of their needs. The descriptive words are arranged in 4 columns. Each column is assigned a numerical rating. The total of the numerical ratings of the 14 items is then translated into a letter grade (A, B, C, D, F) as determined by the position of the total on the curve of normal distribution. It is really a very simple arrangement involving a minimum of clerical work.

By this time I can well imagine that you are thinking that you also have report cards, that they are just as good as ours, and that this is a lot of fuss about an item which comes around once in 6 or 9 weeks to pester the life out of us. I concede the first two points, but in the third lies the gist of this paper. Previously, I have mentioned that the significance of our card lay in its use. Just as in other schools at the quarter, one copy goes to the home, one into the office file, and one is retained by the teacher. However, that is not all. A fourth copy is made by the pupil himself. It is surprising how often the pupils come close to the teacher's estimate, how seriously they approach the task of self-appraisal. Through this medium they have full opportunity to express that all-too-rare attribute, honesty with one's self. Furthermore, the teacher has another valuable tool for gaining increased understanding of the individuals under his care. Previously unobserved maladjustments are sometimes discovered, and remedial treatment is instituted. In addition, our card is a daily affair. The fifth copy of the card, the most valuable as a tool for character and all-around vocational development, is used as a cumulative record. On this copy the teacher frequently checks the 14 items in the presence of the pupil with appropriate discussion, preferably just after he has done a nice piece of work or action. We try to stress the good qualities just as the farmer cultivates most intensely his richest soil. However, whether the check marks signify good or poor work, it is essential that the pupil accept them as fair and unbiased. This copy of the card, besides being a basis for the final analysis, serves to keep our objectives constantly before both teacher and pupil, whereas previously we often lost sight of them in the daily rush. It constantly encourages the pupil to greater effort in accomplishment and in action. Our 3 years of experience with it have led us to believe that we have hit very closely to that most sought after of educational gold mines, intrinsic motivation.

I believe that many of us are prone to think of progressive educational practices as a function of the academic department. We unconsciously classify the vocational department as different. To be sure, it is different in materials, equipment, personnel, and often, unfortunately, methods. But, should it be so? Is not vocational edu-

education as necessary to a child's development as literary? Is education, in the final analysis, separable into vocational, literary, or what you will? Should we not apply the accepted methods of educational practice to all fields thereof? Can the vocational area of education contribute fully to character development while we ignore the best practices? I believe we in the vocational field should give concentrated thought to visual education, field trips, tests, the assignment, the lesson plan, directed study, purposes for teachers, purposes for pupils, discipline, the conference, and the teachers' meeting as media for professional growth, and legitimate research. These problems even partially answered will contribute immeasurably to character development, to the development of the whole child.

VOCATIONAL ANALYSIS CARD

Report on -----
Quarter ending -----

PRESSING

VOCATIONAL LANGUAGE	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor
VOCATIONAL ARITHMETIC	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor

PERFORMANCE

ACCURACY	Always exact	Fairly accurate	Too often inaccurate	Repeatedly errs
SPEED	Very fast	Moderate	Slow	Extremely slow

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

APPLICATION AND INTEREST	Enthusiastic	Steady	Makes little effort	Lacks perseverance
NEATNESS	Habitually neat	Tries	Careless	Slovenly
RELIABILITY	Exceptionally dependable	Usually dependable	Not often dependable	Not dependable
APTITUDE	Very quick to learn	Learns readily	Slow to learn	Very slow to learn
INITIATIVE	Abounds with it	Frequently shows it	Seldom shows it	Never shows it
PROMPTNESS	Habitually on time	Late only with excuse	Irregular	Habitually late
CONFIDENCE	Extremely self-reliant	Not easily discouraged	Uncertain	Timid
JUDGMENT	Very good	Usually uses experience	Seldom uses experience	Unreliable
COOPERATION	Works well with others	Responds readily	Requires persuasion	Indifferent
APPRECIATION	Highly appreciative	Reacts favorably	Shows discontent	Dissatisfied

Grade -----

Semester average -----

Vocational Principal.

Instructor.

DEAR PATRONS: We have departed from the usual type of report in that we have tried to give you a word-picture of your son's rating in his particular vocation. The items in the left column are what the vocational teachers of this school think to be of vital importance to vocational success. The adjoining columns

contain gradations of each of these items. The check mark shows where your son rates as measured by his teachers.

The letter grade in the lower right hand portion of the paper is the teacher's general conclusion as a result of the checks made above. A—Excellent; B—Very good; C—Good; D—Fair; F—Failure.

If you should have any questions regarding the vocational rating given your son, kindly address them to the vocational principal.

Very truly yours,

BOYCE R. WILLIAMS,
Vocational Principal.

ART

Leader: Geneva B. Llewellyn, Wisconsin School.

Paper: Correlating Art With the School Curriculum, Edith Jordan, Illinois School.

Paper: Beginning Art, Marie R. Kaufmann, Central Institute.

CORRELATING ART WITH THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

(EDITH JORDAN, Illinois School)

As we are all art teachers here, I am sure we will agree on one point, that is, it is our concern to connect the experiences of our girls and boys in school with the uses of art in everyday life. As to what those uses are, it will not be necessary to enumerate to this group. The objective of modern education is to provide for girls and boys a well-balanced and progressive adjustment toward the world of which they are a part. This adjustment goes on all through life.

Art education, only a few years ago regarded as a cultural and intellectual subject, has been established as an invaluable source of experience and appreciation and an outlet for creative expression and participation. I quote a part of Frederick Gordon Bonser's Art Creed: "That all progress in art lies in the expression of the experiences, the hopes, the ideals, and the aspirations of our own environment, of our own times and of our own lives. The past is studied to refine and stimulate creative effort for the expression of the life of the present, not to become a substitute for it."

A well-balanced arts curriculum should provide for the pupil the creative experience, the aesthetic experience (call it appreciational experience) and the functional experience. Prof. William G. Whitford, of the University of Chicago, has something of interest to say about these three groups, in the *School Arts Magazine* for January 1939.

The direction of our democracy toward its goal, perhaps rather obscure right now, determines the school's practices in art teaching. Creative expression cannot survive under dictatorship. We realized this decades ago when classroom methods changed from teacher-dictation and copybooks to the study of the individual and his ability to express himself. Perhaps some of you can remember when we had our art lesson in school. Each fall we painted a spear of wheat, a vegetable or autumn leaf, and each spring a radish or a spring flower. We were told just how to arrange our paint box and water pan, how to hold our brush, how to mix our colors, and exactly where to begin and when. In fact, from beginning to end we worked as nearly as possible in unison. Do you remember how

we struggled with the principles of perspective and how dull it was; how we toiled over designs which, too often, had no objective besides learning the principles of repetition, rhythm, balance, etc.? To be sure, no two children draw alike, or create the same conclusion even under rigid copybook methods. For this very important fact we need more individual teaching, more opportunity for activity and experimentation. The arts cannot exist functionally in schools or society in cramped spaces with limited materials and traditional academic formulas for their expression. They should become a working part of every child's experience as he grows up in our schools. It would be ideal if our schools could have a workshop fully equipped and open to the pupils at all times.

In our school we have hobby rooms supervised by W. P. A. workers. This has been a help in keeping the children occupied and happy and is fine as far as it goes, but there is little correlation with the school activities. I do not know how such a general shop as I have in mind, could be managed, but I have the theory that the advanced pupils from the various vocational departments could be in charge. This would give them a chance for practical experiences in their vocation and at the same time develop their initiative and independence. This theory meets with many objections; for instance, there might be accidents with tools, or discipline problems (although I do not consider the latter of much importance, for a busy and happy child is not likely to give any trouble). I believe that a group of student teachers with the assistance of a capable house officer could work this out to the advantage of the pupils, the schools, and the house officers. Given more opportunity for activity, and experimentation, American art will take care of itself. We are more interested in what art does for the child than in what the child does to art. We, as teachers, must be there to guide and inspire. When the child is having difficulty in expression, when he is dissatisfied, then is the psychological moment for learning to take place. With the older pupils we must meet this wish for technique and skill without causing loss of the individual or personal expression. Art, to be free, must be personal.

I am not going into the discussion of the approach to art by the "appreciational experiences" for I know that subject is to be discussed by some one else.

My subject, *Correlating Art With the School Curriculum*, comes under the "Functional Approach to Art." Here I quote Dr. Whitford again: "The approach is based on the assumption that we are all artists in our daily living; that definite art knowledge is essential for complete education in modern society; that certain fundamental concepts of art are necessary in building up types of knowledge which will actually function by aiding pupils in their creative and appreciational experiences of the classroom and in solving economic and social problems of life."

Those of you who have worked out a "course of study" and are able to follow it, probably will not agree with what I have to say. In fact, I hope some of you do not, so that we may have a real discussion. I am most anxious to know how this problem is met in your schools. No art class can cooperate to the utmost with the outside activities and the academic department of the school and at the same

time follow a cut-and-dried "course of study." Who wants to? It would bore me to death to give the same lesson in the same way twice. I admit there are times when it would be easier, and there are times when I am embarrassed, for a letter comes to the school asking what courses in art some pupil had completed. The children have experiences in many lines of art, but it would not be possible to complete many "courses in art" in an elementary school and give the pupils the other experiences necessary to modern education. Why should we, in an elementary school, be expected to turn out commercial artists? We do not graduate lawyers, doctors, or teachers. If we had a national vocation school for the deaf, this would be the logical place for specialized training.

Not so many years ago, our school spent many months revising the "academic course of study." The vocational departments did likewise, and as art is classed as a vocational department, I struggled, for several years, in fact, and I really had a very good start, then I dumped all into the wastebasket and I never want to hear "course of study" again. There is a compromise of course, but let us keep in mind that compromise is a quality stifling to the creative individual.

If we are to prepare the children to meet life's problems, the classrooms should be replicas of situations outside; not only in equipment but in attitudes. In what better way can the art department do this than in cooperating with the activities of the school, both social and academic? One of the activities most interesting and beneficial to the art student is the Dramatic Club. What better problems for the art class, then, to design, construct, and paint scenery and properties for the club? Here we experience learning in the study of perspective, form, color, design, history of art, and many other art principles. Here we have the experience with various mediums and techniques. We have splendid opportunities to study architecture, costume, and historic ornament. Arranging the stage gives opportunity to study the principles of interior decoration, the study of period furniture and accessories. Designing and painting back drops offer experiences in drawing, color, design, practice in techniques, and use of mediums. They are splendid problems in creative expression. I like the freedom of working on a large scale. I try to do much of this in other art experiences such as finger painting, easel painting, poster and murals. Done on a large scale, they have much value because of the boldness and freedom of action; they offer a large broad viewpoint that fine detail work does not.

Marionettes offer a splendid project for creative expression and functional expression. They are a fine project for correlation with reading and history. They give the students experiences in modeling, figure construction, wood carving, study of costume and manipulation. In the last few years we have done very little with marionettes, but are making plans for a more extensive program next year. Last month, as part of the Dramatic Club chapel program, we used four marionettes to illustrate their history and construction. Each was of a different kind, beginning with the glove puppet, then the muslin, the easiest to make. The third was also made of muslin with a carved wooden head, and the fourth was made entirely of wood. The pupils chose the characters they wanted to portray and constructed them entirely without help or suggestions from me except as to costuming.

Masks are another project which give full reign to creative expression. Here the pupil gets practice in modeling, form, and color design. Masks may be correlated with the academic work in reading or history, with the work in the Dramatic Club, with school parties, and with the rhythm class. This spring we made some simple cylinder masks to illustrate an Indian ceremonial dance.

Our girls' physical education department puts on some very beautiful and interesting pageants and exhibitions. At this time the whole school cooperates. In our department it means all the paper work, such as flowers, paper costumes, etc. It may mean designing and decorating scenery; it may mean sketches of costumes to be sent to the clothing department as models. There are posters to be made for publicity and program covers. The opportunities for correlation are unlimited.

Our school has a definite program for social activities. Each month there are parties for the whole school; those for all the pupils above the primary age are held in the gym. A committee decides the motif for the party, such as Mardi gras, barn dance, Chinese festival, etc. A decorating committee is appointed from the pupils to carry out the general theme in their decorations. We think this a splendid chance for the children to use their initiative and to put into practice some of the benefits derived from their experiences in the art classes. The art department is on hand with materials and help. All this means many new experiences with mediums and techniques. The barn dance meant drawing and painting of life-sized animals; the Mardi gras meant appropriate posters, the construction of fancy hats, the constructing and decorating of floats, all a splendid opportunity for creative thinking and expression. The Hallo'een party always means plenty of work for us with costumes and properties for the stunts. The "kid's" party used dozens of huge toys from simple balls to electric trains. Here was our experience in object drawing, and how much more interesting than setting a cylinder and a cube in front of the whole class and struggling with the principles of perspective. Advertising and decorating for the school parties utilize all the skill, inventiveness, and the industry of the students.

The athletic department calls on us to make posters, window cards, and to decorate for tournaments, banquet favors, and program covers.

The Girl Scouts may win their merit badges in art and handicrafts. We were very proud of our Girl Scouts last year. Six of them entered the National Girl Scout sampler contest. We took the first three prizes in class I and the first place in class II from our district, which includes the Central States. These samplers were sent to the national exhibit in Washington and one of our girls won first place. Samplers give a fine chance to develop originality. Each girl made her own design, carrying in mind it was to be a "Scout" sampler. We studied old samplers and stitches.

We like to have our children enter into competition with hearing children, so each year we try to compete in some contest. Two years ago we won first, second, and third place in our county, district, and State with the best "dental health posters." The poster winning first place won honorable mention in the national. A few years ago, one of our boys had a block print accepted in the national scholastic contest which is held each spring. The print traveled with the exhibit

for a year. Of course, many times we hear nothing from the contests and that is as it should be. We want the children to learn to take disappointments.

So far, I have been talking of correlating art and the extra curriculum activities. I think it hardly necessary to more than mention some of the possibilities of correlating art with the academic and vocational departments. There are so many projects to be worked out with the reading and English classes, such as bookbinding, study of records, printing book plates, marionettes, masks, posters of all kinds; with history there is the study of housing, architecture, clothing, utensils, heat, light, and power, posters and murals to be made; for geography there is map making, travel posters, sand-table projects, modeling, etc., in science, there are notebooks to illustrate, blueprints, experiments with various mediums such as clay, paper, metal, etc.; and in civics there are all kinds of citizenship posters to make, such as "clean U," "health," "safety," etc. We often wonder if we will get any work done besides posters. The poster is an excellent experience for it contains all the principles of design and the theory of color.

I am not going further in this discussion, but am sure we could find some way to correlate art with every academic subject. I want to speak briefly about art in correlation with the vocational departments. It should be, and could be, of great benefit to the pupil and the school. We do help the foods department a little by making place cards and favors for their banquets and luncheons. We work with the printing department by making book covers, program covers, illustrations for the yearbook, etc. The boys who work part time in the print shop and part time in the art class, study processes of reproduction. They design and carve linoleum and wood blocks, engrave chalk mats, make etchings, monotypes, and stencils. They have experiences in the use of mediums and techniques used for illustration.

No two pupils are doing the same work at the same time. No two have been in the department the same length of time. Each is a class by himself. It is entirely up to the student to accomplish as much or as little work as he wishes in the art room. The enthusiastic and ambitious child may progress as rapidly as his ability merits. As far as possible, we try to let the individual develop the line of art work in which he is most interested.

It is one of my pet theories that every girl should have training in cooking and sewing and some guidance in the principles of beauty, good taste, appreciation, whatever you want to call it. Here is a chance for courses in architecture, interior decoration, picture study, costume designing, and handicrafts. They all might better come under the simple heading "Homemaking," or "Appreciation." Here, surely, the art department could be of help to the domestic arts department.

We could give the boys from the cabinet shop a course in period furniture and furniture designs. The pupils from the upholstery shop might profit by a course in textiles. I have never been able to figure out just how we could be of any help to the barber shop or the bakery.

Aside from the fact that we think we are of some value and help to the school, we are training hands, correlating them with creative expression, hoping to develop special talents or aptitudes in one or many of the lines of art—in some cases to untold limits, in others, perhaps not any further than an interest or a hobby for leisure time. In all,

we hope to develop observation, coordination, and appreciation, which will help our pupils to adjust themselves in this unstable world.

It has been said many times: "Creative hands will make a better world."

It is necessary that we do not lose sight of fundamentals when endeavoring to adapt new curriculum practices to the school. But if a political and industrial democracy is to function, we must see that our school supplies those basic qualities having to do with invention, discovery, and expression.

BEGINNING ART

(MARIA R. KAUFMANN, Central Institute)

Of all the definitions of art—and there are many—my favorite is this one: "Art is the prime factor of the spiritual values by which the cultural standards of nations are appraised." It is because of this that I feel that the teaching of art cannot begin too soon or too early in life. Whether we become creators or appreciators of art is not very important to any but ourselves, but to be either one or the other is important in the life of any nation.

What do we think of when we say art for the beginner? In this case we are speaking of the nursery-school deaf child. But whether deaf or hearing, our approach is the same. We must think of art as graphic expression and not as the execution of an accepted technique of space relationships, dimensional and lineal.

Graphic expression is as old as man himself. The impulse and need to communicate with his fellow men have existed from the beginning. Man understood pictures before he understood languages, and still we understand the pictures of some peoples whose language we do not know. So also the deaf child tells us stories in his pictures which he could not tell us in words with his very small vocabulary.

What does the art period do for the deaf nursery-school child?

It gives him power of expression in color, form, and line—and so a tremendous compensation for his lack of vocal expression—for in his drawings the child sees his thoughts and emotions objectified and becomes very happy and well satisfied with his ability to make us understand.

The child's representations are determined by his concepts, not by his visual imagery or manual skill. He draws what he knows, not what he sees. For example, look at this drawing by little 5-year-old Ruth. It is from nature, a spray of pear blossoms brought to school for the purpose. Ruth has known flowers for a long time, but they were always bright red, yellow, orange, and blue, not the colorless white of the fruit blossom. So Ruth looked at the pear blossom spray, drew the vase and the flowers in it, but colored them as she knew them—red, orange, and blue. What Ruth really said was: "I do not like your flowers, mine are prettier." And why not?

What art in the nursery school should do is to give the child the opportunity to express himself freely and spontaneously. It should stimulate his concept development, encourage his habit of observation and thinking. It should help him to express his thoughts through the medium of art. We should not try to teach the child any tech-

niques, but should guide him whenever we can without diminishing his spontaneity.

There are very definite stages of development in the small child's drawings [illustrations].

1. He manipulates the new instruments and adapts his hands to them. Nothing but meaningless scribbles results from this.

2. He names his incoherent lines. There is still an obvious lack of control of his drawing instrument. But he would have us believe he knew what he was doing.

3. He begins to see resemblances between chance lines.

4. He tries to complete these resemblances and begins to realize the possibilities of graphic expression. Then the joy of the child is something to behold.

Here is a small exhibit of my children's recorded experiences in drawings and paintings. You can see that each child brought his own personality and interpretations into his picture of the same subject.

Spring to one meant cutting the lawn; to another, bees; to another, house cleaning; to another, a bird feeding his young, flowers, butterflies; and to still another, just the sun and he under it with his coat off. Being able to go without a coat was his greatest impression received from spring.

When the child is given 30 to 60 minutes daily during which he may say what he wants and how, without command, censure, or correction, he often works off a bad mood or fit of naughtiness without harm to his classmates and certainly with great benefit to himself. His equilibrium is restored and he again is capable of concentration. This point is particularly important with the deaf child. We have experimented with our children and found that some—especially the emotionally unstable ones—would do very unsatisfactory classroom work in the afternoon if their art period succeeded rather than preceded their classroom work. The speech teacher found them much more receptive to her teaching after the art period.

We must allow the deaf child to establish his individuality. We must give him the opportunity to develop his personality, partly at least, as he wishes. There is no better way than to start him early on the way to self-expression through the medium of art.

SECTION FOR DEAF TEACHERS

Leader: G. C. Farquhar, Missouri School.

Paper: Integration of Extra Activities Into the Curriculum, Nathan Zimble, principal, Arkansas School.

Discussion: John G. O'Brien, Indiana School; D. H. Wenger, Utah School.

INTEGRATION OF EXTRA ACTIVITIES INTO THE CURRICULUM

(NATHAN ZIMBLE, principal, Arkansas School)

The ever-expanding curriculum of the schools of today is a far cry from the simple three "R's" of bygone days when the primary objective of education was to develop the intellect. There is hardly a school today that does not specialize in the vocational and social

aspects of the individual's needs as well as the mental aspects. When extra-curricular activities took the stage, they were considered just that, something extra and unrelated to the accepted curriculum of the day. The social and physical needs were either lightly regarded or disregarded entirely. The extra activities, such as they were, were pursued by the pupils without recognition by, or direction from, teachers or school authorities, and without rewards or regular school credit. During subsequent years, little, if any, effort had been made to correlate nonclassroom activities with the regular curriculum.

Dr. J. K. Hart in his book *Inside Experiences* states, "Education cannot be regarded as a process of forcible feeding, nor the school as a sort of academic cannery. Principles and precepts learned in the classroom become really significant only when the student discovers their experimental meaning as he ranges through his extra-school relationships or explores those materials of his larger environment. If the student does not acquire proficiency in his school relationships, therefore, he has not only missed a genuine opportunity for social adjustment, but he may have incurred a social handicap."

This observation of Dr. Hart is an accepted fact today. The importance of extra activities is now generally conceded by practically all educators for their value in character building, development of good citizenship, helping the individual to make better use of his leisure time, and social adjustment in general. The extra activities are so varied and numerous that it is possible to prepare the individual for all phases of living by developing such qualities and traits as initiative, leadership, cooperation, appreciation, physical well-being, intelligent obedience to law and order, and the common courtesies of social intercourse.

The extra activities in our schools create that happy and contented frame of mind that makes the serious business of school life such a genuine pleasure. These activities have taken the drudgery out of the three "R's," and our school administrators now would no more think of abolishing them than they would consider doing away with vocational training.

Since the value of extra activities is so widely recognized, would it not be advisable to do away with the accustomed term "extra-curricular" in favor of the more appropriate term "cocurricular" which is now being used at the Georgia School for the Deaf? This would have the psychological effect of turning the mind away from the negative thought that these activities are something extra and unrelated to the regular curriculum.

Extra activities do have a definite place in the curriculum and should accordingly be a direct outgrowth of subjects taught in the classroom. They should not only provide for better use of leisure time but should return to the curriculum, and thus enrich it.

The benefits of bringing extra activities directly into the classroom are manifold. To mention but a few: History classes could be broken up into clubs wherever possible: Travel clubs, stamp clubs, collection clubs, etc., thereby making the study of this subject more meaningful. Civics could be taught by means of self-government. The civics clubs in a school could administer the policies of the school in conjunction with, of course, the school authorities themselves. This will enable the pupil to apply the study of civics to

administrative problems. In addition to the usual class president and other officers, the school should have a mayor and a council, etc. One year the school might be organized as our Federal Government is now organized; another year as our State government. Classes in English might organize into literary societies once a week, and request that each pupil bring some original contribution to the club. Wherever possible, every subject taught in the curriculum should be socialized, i. e., so arranged that the pupil will integrate the activities of the school with life itself. The wide awake, conscientious, and versatile teacher will steer clear of the "book rut." She will be fully informed about all activities in which her pupils take part in addition to supplying her own; for these activities will bring living experiences into the classroom, experiences that should prove of inestimable value, especially in the teaching of English, a subject about which we are so deeply concerned.

Individuals do not possess the same innate capacities, intelligence, health, character traits, dispositions, ambitions, likes, and dislikes. Conceding this truth, and taking into consideration the great number and variety of possible activities, would it not be feasible to have what we might term "activity guidance" to direct the student into those activities for which he exhibits special aptitudes, and guide him into others with a view to giving him preparatory training in social behavior? It is true that there will be pupils who do not care to join any club or activity. A way out of this dilemma would be to give such recalcitrant individuals additional dormitory chores, while others are participating in activities. The idea of doing more than one's share of chores while others are busy at their hobbies will most likely be distasteful and will, doubtless, act as an incentive to "join up," so to speak.

However, it is a truism that all good things can be overdone. New activities, therefore, should be taken up only when the demand for them warrants doing so, and when competent faculty supervision is possible. Going still further, an activity should be guarded by school administrators against outside interference on the part of other officers who are not directly associated with the activity. Since the activity is a recognized part of our educative process, it should not be held as a sword of Damocles over the heads of the participants, descending upon them when they commit some misdemeanor outside the precincts of the activity in question. We should no more think of depriving a child of his participation in an activity for failure to do his chores properly or for punching another pupil's nose, than we would think of keeping him out of the classroom as a punitive measure for a similar offense. It should be at the discretion of the leaders themselves who give their time and energy to outside activities to impose penalties. Nevertheless, children in our residential schools are under the guidance of so many leaders that it is absolutely essential that there be perfect accord and cooperation among all members who direct the various activities.

It is an indisputable fact that many of our students leave their respective schools academically retarded and will do little, if any, reading for pleasure or profit. The hobbies that such individuals have been encouraged to take up in the way of making better use of

their leisure time will mean much in making their lot a better one. A person who is busy is a contented person. It is not necessary to stretch the imagination to picture the plight of a deaf individual in a community without the companionship of others similarly handicapped, who has nothing to do. It is self-evident then that hobby clubs and other worth-while activities should be integrated into the curriculum, and credits and awards be given to the participants. The pupil's participation in extra activities throughout his or her years at school should be given as much serious planning as we give to preparing academic and vocational courses.

However, there are a number of problems with which all of you are familiar, that have developed as a result of our extra-curricular activities; such as the danger of overemphasis of the extra activity set-up, especially athletics; the difficulty where the school is small, in finding sufficient time, space, and equipment; the neglect of regular curricular subjects; the expense entailed in providing material for activities; outside interference. Yet, in spite of these and possibly other difficulties, extra activities are becoming more and more an integral part of the curriculum, and are being supervised as an essential aspect of school organization.

GENERAL SESSION, TUESDAY, JUNE 24

Auditorium, Advanced School Building, 11 a. m.

Presiding: Dr. Ignatius Bjorlee, superintendent, Maryland School.

Greetings: The Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, Dr. Percival Hall, president; National Forum on Deafness and Speech Pathology, Margaret Scyster, Illinois School; Council of Teachers of the Deaf and the Hard of Hearing in Public Schools, Jennie M. Henderson, president; The National Association of the Deaf, Dr. Tom L. Anderson, president; The American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, D. T. Cloud, managing officer, Illinois School.

President's address: The School of Tomorrow, Elwood A. Stevenson, president of the convention.

The meeting of the general session convened at 11:10 o'clock in the auditorium of the Advanced School Building, Dr. Ignatius Bjorlee, superintendent of the Maryland State School for the Deaf, presiding.

Dr. BJORLEE. We have, as the opening of our session this morning, several greetings that are being brought to us from our brother or sister organizations in the work of the education of the deaf, and it gives me great pleasure to present to you at this time Dr. Percival Hall, president of Gallaudet College, who is going to bring us the greetings from the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, of which he is the president.

Dr. HALL. If we look back over quite a number of years, we will find that there was an organization more or less loosely bound together of the heads of the schools that was known in the old days as the Conference of Superintendents and Principals. That organization met in Washington under the invitation of Dr. Edward Miner Gallaudet in 1868, and met for a good many years afterward on many occasions. It was a loosely organized group, which, however, carried on one very

important function. That was the management of the American Annals of the Deaf, which I am sure you are all very glad to see during the year and which I am sure helps every one of you a great deal.

At that very first meeting Dr. Edward Miner Gallaudet became one of the first advocates among prominent educators of the deaf in this country for the teaching of speech to the deaf. That may surprise you, and may not, but that is a fact. This was his conviction upon returning from an extensive trip to the European schools.

As time went by, the group of the heads of the schools felt the need of a closer organization, and not quite 20 years ago steps were taken in that matter, and in 1931 the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf was organized formally, incorporated, with officers, bylaws, a constitution, and regular meetings. The field it is now trying to cover is the study of the more definitely executive questions that come up among the heads of schools and the matter of stimulating research in our various schools and other organizations.

In speaking to you this morning and bringing greetings, I would like to point out to you that since the formal organization of the conference it has undertaken some very important matters, important to you and important to all of us who are engaged in this work. In the first place, it has taken over examination and certification of training centers for our special teachers. I think that is one of the most important activities which our conference has undertaken. It has proceeded definitely and successfully.

We have now more than a dozen training centers which have been approved by the proper committee of the Conference of Executives and which are engaged in training every year more than a hundred promising young people to take up the gaps in our profession.

It has also done a great work, in my opinion, by taking over, at the request of the convention, the certification of teachers, and I am glad to say that already out of our small family group, which may number around 3,000, nearly half are now certified through the agency of the Conference of Executives. That has set up certain standards which have been accepted in many of our State schools by the superintendents themselves as requirements. They have been accepted by many State governments as acceptable in making appointments in the schools for the deaf.

That has been a very definite step forward, I think, in the work of the conference. And then finally let me call your attention to the fact that we still give out splendid material for all of you in the American Annals of the Deaf, which I hope all of you get a chance to study during the school year. Whether it is presentation of news, of new ideas, or methods of teaching, it is very valuable information for all of you.

That is the picture I want to present to you this morning of a group of heads of schools who are well organized now, who are working in the field of administration largely, of course, but who are very definitely and absolutely given to the education of the deaf as a whole. They are most interested in all of your work and all of your meetings.

You have started here with a tremendous enrollment for this meeting and have splendid exhibits to examine. You have fine demonstrations to see and I am sure that I can bring to you greetings from our group, and the feeling on our part that you will have a delightful and helpful meeting here in Fulton. Thank you.

Dr. BJORLEE. Thank you, Dr. Hall. Back in 1917, Dr. Goldstein of St. Louis set out on a pioneer line to establish a new organization and he took for the name of that organization the Society of Progressive Oral Advocates. That organization has since changed to the National Forum on Deafness and Speech Pathology. Miss Margaret Scyster, of the Illinois School for the Deaf, will now speak for our friends in that group.

Miss SCYSTER. Mr. Chairman, Superintendent Ingle and your faculty, Dr. Settles and your committee leaders, members and guests of the thirty-second meeting of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, I extend to you greetings from the National Forum on Deafness and Speech Pathology, and best wishes for the success of this, your thirty-second convention. [Applause.]

Dr. BJORLEE. And, now, I shall certainly not presume to make any introductory remarks about our next speaker, who is so well and favorably known to each and every one of you. The Council of Teachers of the Deaf and the Hard of Hearing in Public Schools, spoken for by Miss Jennie M. Henderson, its president, and principal of the Horace Mann School, Roxbury, Mass.

Miss HENDERSON. Mr. Chairman, honored guests, members of the convention, and friends of the deaf, it is a great pleasure to be with you this morning representing as I do the great body of day-school teachers. It seems fitting at this time that the greetings of the Council of Day-School Teachers of the Deaf should be brought to you, not only from that body but by one who is also the principal of the first oral day school which was founded in the country and probably in the world. I therefore, as president of the Council of Day-School Teachers, and as principal of the Horace Mann School, bring greetings to the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf.

That there is a definite place in the educational program for the day school for the deaf no one will deny. When day schools were first established there was skepticism and some controversy, but after careful study and consideration and because parents were insistent in their desire to keep the little deaf child in the family, the first day school for the deaf came into being. To the city of Boston belongs the honor of first founding a school where deaf children could be educated free, while they lived at home and grew up with the same loving care as their hearing brothers and sisters. Accordingly, the Horace Mann School was founded on November 10, 1869, and for more than 70 years it has been serving the community as a public day school for the deaf.

Dexter S. King, of the Boston school committee, was the one who presented the cause of the day school so favorably before the committee in Boston. He felt that there was a great need for a school in the community where deaf children could learn to talk and to read the lips without leaving their homes to go to an institution.

The success of the Horace Mann School was doubly assured by the enthusiastic support of Alexander Graham Bell, who was a stanch friend of Miss Sarah Fuller, one of the pioneer teachers of the deaf. His training, teaching, and advice were of great advantage to our school.

But I am not here to present a brief for the day school. We of the day schools have the same educational problems as you of the residential schools. To be sure, we do not have the care and responsibility

of the home life of our pupils. In some respects you have the advantage. We feel that in other respects we can have a closer acquaintance with the family and home. The principal of a day school which has a strong home and school association can talk over many problems with the parents. The school visitor is often a teacher who can help in the adjustment of a problem child. The day-school teacher in a large city has the advantage of contact with the educational facilities and with the curriculum of the schools for normal children. These contacts can be used as assets in the educational development of the deaf.

A school for the deaf has been called by a well-known superintendent who was interested in its maintenance as the brightest jewel in the educational world. Would that the educational world as a whole knew of the whole-hearted devotion which teachers of the deaf bring to their classrooms.

Let us leave the work of the past year and look toward the future. Aside from our pupils' academic progress, what evidence can we see of security for them in after life? Can we say that we have seen in the individual any improvement in character, any improvement in the way a pupil approaches his task? Is there any improvement in the pupil's attitude toward his classmates? Is there cooperation? I take it that we all concede that the building of character is the only saving grace which makes for good citizenship.

Do we believe that as the twig is bent the tree is inclined? Can we make our boys and girls see that there is a happiness which comes from work well done? Have they learned the social value of working with others? On the other hand, can an individual work by himself until he has mastered an individual problem? Such ability makes for growth in any field.

So much for the pupils. Now let us turn to the teachers. We cannot teach without vision. We may be the "dreamers of dreams" but that is what the pioneers were aforesaid. But for them we should not have the world of today with its educational possibilities in this glorious free land of America. Failures there may be, but undaunted we must press on toward the goal. When there is no vision, the people perish.

We must indeed "follow the gleam" with our deaf children. Very often the little child leadeth the way if we have discernment to see and to follow.

Each teacher must keep her professional attitude. Knowledge of subject matter is essential. Knowledge of methods and ways of presenting this knowledge to the pupil is necessary. Constructive thinking and planning toward the ends to be accomplished are vital.

All who are educators in any sense of the word must keep up with their professional reading. We must keep up with the best thought in our profession.

We cannot forever cling to the past. We must not close the mind against the new. There must be a generous recognition of the worth while in education. It has been said, "Those who believe in us educate us."

Not long ago our assistant superintendent, Miss Mary Mellyn, of Boston, gave an inspiring address on the Finest Thing in Teaching. What was it? Skill—interest—scholarship? No. The finest thing in teaching is friendliness. Make children feel your friendliness and

understanding. Make them feel that you are for them and they will measure up to your faith in them. It is our job to set the feet of our children in the path of happy living. There is an atmosphere of encouragement in which friendliness thrives and personal growth takes place.

Friendliness, understanding, appreciation make for the exercise of true power which results in cooperative activity in the school.

Let me close with a favorite poem:

WORK

Let me but do my work from day to day,
In field or forest, at the desk or loom,
In roaring market-place or tranquil room;
Let me but find it in my heart to say,
When vagrant wishes beckon me astray,
"This is my work; my blessing, not my doom;
"Of all who live, I am the one by whom
"This work can best be done in the right way."

Then shall I see it not too great, nor small,
To suit my spirit and to prove my powers;
Then shall I cheerful greet the laboring hours,
And cheerful turn, when the long shadows fall
At eventide, to play and love and rest,
Because I know for me my work is best.

—Henry Van Dyke.

Dr. BJORLEE. Thank you, Miss Henderson, for that very splendid paper which you gave us, which we all felt came directly from the heart. I wish we could all put that into our daily work.

In 1880 a group of deaf adults met together and perfected an organization which they called the National Association of the Deaf, and at our convention here in Fulton, this group has been brought to the fore in order that they might give us a greeting, and I feel it is one of the finest things that can be done for the benefit of our schoolroom teachers, because I have always had a feeling that it is very difficult for us to do our educational work properly unless we see the results of that training in our graduates and unless we see the utility that they are making of the type training that we have given them. So I believe one of the things we can do at the convention is brush elbows with the deaf in their various lines. It gives me great pleasure at this time to introduce the president of the National Association of the Deaf, Dr. Tom L. Anderson.

Dr. ANDERSON. Mr. Chairman, members of the convention, ladies and gentlemen, a year ago it was my pleasure and privilege to attend a convention of the National Association of the Deaf at Los Angeles. It was, in effect, a gathering of the matured products of all of our schools for the deaf and of the college. The convention was held in the luxurious atmosphere of the Ambassador Hotel. The attendance on opening night was estimated at 2,000.

A number of prominent people showed great interest in the gathering. I recall that Mr. Sid Grauman, whom you may remember as head of the Chinese Theater in Hollywood, who has lived in that hotel for 20 years, was attracted to our gathering and volunteered to speak to us briefly, saying that in his 20 years' residence in that hotel that was the best conducted convention of his recollection.

As an educator I have had occasion to feel proud, indeed, of the impression made at that time by your pupils of yesterday. Had you been able to follow your old pupils, to take part in the order of business and the brilliant social activities of that week, well might you have shared my feeling of pride. You might have returned to the business of educating with the broader comprehension of its outcome, with the feeling of greater satisfaction in the results of your work, of greater faith in the destinies of your pupils of today.

The achievements of the National Association of the Deaf have found their beginnings in the educational system of America. The problems of education and the outcomes of education viewed in their practical aspects have formed a major concern of the National Association since its founding in 1880. The educational system has always had the active cooperation of the National Association in all matters affecting the best interest of the deaf children of America.

Therefore, in deep feeling that we are engaged in a great task together, and in cordial appreciation of the part that the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf has played and will continue to play in shaping the lives of the youth who become the sterling deaf citizens of America, I bring greetings from the National Association of the Deaf and best wishes for a successful convention. I thank you. [Applause.]

Dr. BJORLEE. And now I am going to call upon our good friend, Mr. D. T. Cloud, managing officer of the Illinois School for the Deaf, to bring us the greetings of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, an organization the history of which I am sure is familiar to all of you.

Mr. CLOUD. Mr. Chairman, members of the convention, after having listened to the stories and political speeches made by the representatives of the South, and the North, and the East, and the West last night, and a review of the virtues of the several organizations which are represented on this platform at the moment, I am wondering what there is left to be said in behalf of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf. I regret very much that President Gruver is not present to extend the greetings of the association and I also deeply regret that Dr. Taylor is not present, who perhaps better than anyone else could do the job. However, I shall not make you suffer very long in extending these greetings, but will merely state that all the things you heard last night and all the things you heard this morning the American Association advocates, and in addition extends greetings and best wishes to the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf for a successful meeting. [Applause.]

Dr. BJORLEE. Sometime ago I received a letter from your president, Mr. Elwood A. Stevenson, of Berkeley, Calif., asking me if I would read a paper which he had prepared to be delivered at the gathering. I feel that that is a large bill, and one that I cannot adequately fill. As a matter of fact, I don't believe anyone here present can adequately fill that position, because you have to lift yourself into Mr. Stevenson's personality to fully appreciate this paper.

For the benefit of some of you who may not know Mr. Stevenson, the gentleman with whom I have had the most friendly relationship for a period of a quarter of a century, just let me say that by background, by training, by experience, he has lived the life that I feel is

necessary for a true educator of the deaf. He has studied all of the progressive methods connected with the work of the education of the deaf, and always made it a point to affiliate himself with the adult deaf whenever and wherever the opportunity afforded itself.

His paper comes direct from the shoulder, and that is one of the characteristic features of Mr. Stevenson. It would not be Elwood if he wasn't direct, and he appeals to you in this paper to take the thoughts that he has thrown out and give them careful consideration. You may not agree with all of them, but don't discard them. Take them home with you and think them over.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS

THE SCHOOL OF TOMORROW

(ELWOOD A. STEVENSON, principal of the California School)

As president of your organization, it becomes my pleasant privilege and responsibility to discuss with you certain vital matters common to the field of teaching the deaf. In selecting the subject, I have endeavored to choose one that would act as a medium for a message, a message which I sincerely hope will arouse thought among you. What this profession needs most today is accurate, clear, and logical thinking on the part of every worker. There are many who never talk to the deaf child outside the classroom. There are many who are incapable of communicating with the adult deaf, the end results of their teaching. Consequently, with all their training and teaching, they have failed to get close to the true conditions and problems. They are satisfied to teach and to follow policies and objectives without much questioning and thought. The definite purpose of this paper, remember, is to cause frank and honest thinking among you.

First, I would like to pay tribute to the school of yesterday. In many respects it accomplished great things under very difficult conditions. What would that same personnel accomplish with the many improvements and advantages we have today? Do not understand me as implying that the schools of today are not rendering efficient service. They are, but in terms of the efforts, interest, and accomplishment of those workers of 40 and 50 years ago, you will agree that with the conditions and the advantages of today they would have afforded the deaf children of their time even greater opportunities.

With all due consideration to the present leaders of the profession and to their writings and expression, I can recommend to you for your professional improvement and thought the opinions and articles written by many of the old guard during the period between 1870 and 1900. Procedures and activities that some of you look upon as new today were discussed and carried out by these great teachers years ago but under entirely different circumstances. Before leaving those of the school of yesterday to proceed with the subject at hand, let me say that the two outstanding characteristics which marked the average teacher of yesterday and which we hope to see again, may be expressed in this way: First, she was closer to the deaf child and had more opportunity to know his problems;

and, second, she was rendering her services because she loved the work and was motivated largely by a missionary spirit. These qualities are vital to successful teaching.

In discussing the school of tomorrow, it will be necessary in many instances to set up a number of ideal objectives and factors in terms of our own experiences and background. Some of these are already being partially carried out. Some will require time to be developed. Some will be unacceptable to certain individuals. Some will be unattainable in certain schools. However, all can be accepted and considered in the form of a challenge. At any rate, you can study them for what they are worth and begin visualizing and planning for the school of the future.

It has often been said that the character and progress of a school can be measured largely by the type of superintendent at the head. To be sure, there are exceptions, but nevertheless, in most instances, this is found to be true. One must qualify this somewhat by saying that the teaching staff and personnel likewise have much to do with the success of a school. Yet, it is the superintendent who sets the tempo as it were and his workers more or less follow. This is a very important factor to bear in mind. Along this same thought, the following facts are very pertinent and should have your close attention. During the last 10 years, 39 schools for the deaf have had changes in superintendents (67 percent). Thirty-four of these have had 1 change; 4 schools have had 2 changes; 1 school has had 3 changes. This means that 45 superintendents have been appointed in the last 10 years. Of the 45 persons appointed, 18 (40 percent) had no training and no experience in the work with the deaf. During the last 5 years, there have been 27 changes in superintendencies, and of this number, 14 (52 percent) appointments were from outside the profession. This factor has great influence and effect on the schools and on the profession.

There is more to successful teaching than merely possessing a strong and complete educational background. Personality, a certain necessary spirit, and a strong love for teaching are absolutely essential to good teaching. Look over the successful and valued teacher of yesterday and today, and you will find that she has been characterized largely by personality and by a strong love for teaching more than by anything else. These teachers are too few, however. There is dire need of more and better teachers. Every effort should be made to obtain the capable and well-trained teacher so as to better realize the objectives. The teacher of the deaf of tomorrow should not be one who for obvious reasons suddenly decides to teach the deaf, but should be one who has intended to choose teaching as a profession. She should be a graduate of a 4-year teacher-training institution. These are the young people who should be induced to take the special training necessary to teach the deaf. The preparation, training, and education of the deaf child require far more understanding of procedure and of pedagogy than that necessary for the hearing child. Therefore, the school for the deaf needs the best. Every manner of inducement should be offered to make this possible. To carry out successfully our objectives as well as our obligations to the deaf child, it is absolutely necessary that all teachers be carefully chosen and thoroughly trained.

The next important step to that of securing the proper type of candidate for teaching is the nature of the training given. Training cen-

ters have done some very good work. However, it has not been sufficient and will not answer the demands of the school of tomorrow. In the first place, there should be fewer centers, and these centers should be strengthened. Likewise, they should be strategically located in different parts of the country so as to afford each section the opportunity for the training. None should be "one-sided" in its training and should afford the trainees as complete an understanding as possible of the whole problem of the education of the deaf child.

The requirements at each center should be the same, one of which should be that a candidate be a graduate of an accredited teacher-training institution. The course of training should be essentially the same at all centers. Very careful study should be given to the selection of content and also to the appointment of training instructors. The day of the one-teacher and two-teacher training class is past. The training and the teacher will have to be more thorough than they are today.

A member of the staff of the school of tomorrow will be a full-time psychologist. He will be in charge of all types of testing, and together with the supervising teachers, will make decisions as to the proper placement of the pupils. Grades, as commonly understood, will be no more. It will be "years" in school instead. In the upper school, departmental procedure will be followed, and the pupils will be placed in subjects according to the level of their abilities. As there is much more to do in the matter of reading and language improvement, the psychologist will aid in the study of proper material and in the necessary approach to the deaf child. Advance and progress will be expected in this branch of the work.

All children will be given audiometric tests periodically by this member of the staff. It is as important to know what degree of "sound perception" a deaf child has as it is to know what degree of residual hearing a hard-of-hearing child possesses. Sound perception, when recognized as such and when used properly, becomes a very strong asset in bettering speech and lip-reading. Contrary to certain opinion, sound perception will not be "developed" into hearing in the sense of functional hearing and of interpreting spoken connected language. Through careful study and testing, children will be grouped together in classes not only according to educational level and accomplishment, but also, wherever it is possible and beneficial, according to their degree of sound perception. Group hearing aids, constructed locally and at very reasonable costs, will be used in most classrooms to utilize sound perception in speech and in lip reading. All such planning and arrangements will come under the psychologist and the supervising teachers. This phase of the work will be better understood by superintendent and teacher, and the deaf child as a result will not be considered as "profoundly deaf" or "partially deaf." Parents and the public will no longer read of miracles, where the deaf child, through the use of auricular exercises and of the group hearing aid, has been transformed into a hard-of-hearing child. The cloud of confusion will be lifted, and those in the profession will recognize the deaf as being deaf and the hard-of-hearing as hard of hearing.

The psychologist will play a very important role on the staff of the school of tomorrow. In addition to the duties already mentioned, he will be the connecting link between the classroom teacher and the

deans and officers in charge of the children outside the classroom. This will prove to be a very essential cog in the necessary machinery of understanding the child as a whole and working out his problems. The superintendent, the teacher, and the officer will consider the deaf child as a child, and will endeavor to understand him and his problems on his level and as a child. Too often has the deaf child been made to try to understand the superintendent and the teacher on their level.

Before discussing the curriculum and the general organization of the school of tomorrow, it will be well to study the school population. Because of the rapid advancement and possibilities of the hearing aid, the hard-of-hearing child in general will not be educated in schools for the deaf but will be educated in the public schools of the larger cities or in a State residential school for the hard of hearing as the case may be. Since 15 to 40 percent of school populations today are made up of hard-of-hearing children, such numbers will justify separate schools and complete segregation. Only where small numbers will not permit such arrangements, will the severely hard of hearing continue to be admitted to schools for the deaf. However, here they will be educated as hard-of-hearing children in classes of their own, and all instruction will be through the use of hearing aids. In passing, let me say that when a school today reports that it has less than half of 1 percent of its school population made up of hard-of-hearing children, either the public schools of that State are providing adequately for the hard of hearing or the school authorities do not recognize them when they have them in the school.

Because of the great advancement and progress of medical science, the percentage of adventitiously deaf has become less than it was 25 and 30 years ago. This is indicated very definitely in the residential schools. Today the adventitiously deaf who lost hearing after age 6 years make up only between 1 and 3 percent of the school population. The remaining 97 to 99 percent represent those who were either congenitally deaf or lost hearing before age 6 years. Of this large percent, about 35 percent are considered as congenitally deaf although doctors state that it is most difficult to determine whether or not one is congenitally deaf.

Realizing these factors, the school will gear its work not for the minority but for the majority, and the emphasis of the course of study will be for the large 97 percent with special arrangements in addition wherever necessary for the minority adventitiously deaf and for all others who can successfully benefit by them.

All schools will have courses of study. Through careful planning, arrangements will be made so that the outlines will be similar and all pupils will receive the same instruction and opportunity at the same levels. Although the teaching of language will receive greater emphasis and will be the "core" of the early years of teaching, speech will be given as much stress as ever and will be better in its results because of better teaching and better foundation. The use of group hearing aids will play a large part in speech teaching as well as in lip reading.

In any given group of children, hearing or deaf, one finds that mentally 70 percent are average, 12 percent are above the average, 12 percent are below the average, 3 percent are precocious, and 3 percent are mentally slow or deficient. In other words, children vary from one another in many ways, including mental and physical abilities. All

do not come out of the same mold. These differences are augmented and are very evident when considering the deaf. Consequently, schools will meet these very definite differences by making all necessary provisions in the school set-up. For example, pupils who have reached "the saturation point" will no longer be held to a full day in academic classes. After the deaf child has been in school for 8 or 9 years, or say he has reached the sixth grade as we understand it today, school authorities will decide whether or not his school accomplishment, rate of progress, and ability warrant his continuing his academic course. If so, he will continue with his regular classes until he completes the equivalent of high-school level or advances as far as he can. If not, plans will be made to place more time and stress upon the vocational training, allowing about an hour or so a day for special instruction in language and in arithmetic. In other words, after 8 or 9 years of instruction in a school course that will approximate 15 years, definite steps will be taken to afford the deaf child every opportunity to develop along lines best suited to his ability.

By getting closer to the problem, the school authorities will recognize and accept the vast differences in abilities among a given group of deaf children, and will act accordingly. Speech and lip reading will be among the main objectives, but the child who is mentally capable will not be considered less capable because of his inability to speak or to read lips. Manual classes will be in evidence as truly manual classes and not as "specials." To take care of those who are below the average in language accomplishment and general school work, there will be what is commonly known as special classes. The school staffs will have places for the well-trained and qualified deaf teacher. In fact, there will be more deaf teachers in schools than there are today.

Those in charge of the school of tomorrow, by studying all factors, understanding the problem more thoroughly and knowing the social life of the adult deaf, will have a greater appreciation for, and a clearer conception of, finger spelling and of the place and value of signs. Personal opinion and desire to support these opinions will give way to procedures that have been found best for the true development and growth of the deaf child to the end that he be a self-supporting, happy, law-abiding citizen. What is known as the Rochester Method, the use of finger spelling and speech, will be found in practically all classrooms. Furthermore, inasmuch as all deaf children, who find difficulty in making themselves understood, will pantomime and gesture, and inasmuch as it has been found that, in spite of all effort to the contrary, they "bootleg" signs where they are prohibited, the authorities, in realizing the proper place of signs, will follow the procedure of permitting their use in all activities outside the classroom. It will be the accepted understanding that signs are not a method of instruction and have no place in the schoolroom, but are a means of communication only. All schools will again have their chapel talks, literary meetings, lectures, and other outside activities which mean so much to the full development of every deaf child. Because of the prevalence of misconceptions concerning signs, it would be well to discuss this point further.

Children, deaf or hearing, understand things only when they are presented on their level and through a medium easily understood

by them. This is good psychology. The everyday practical things in life are not learned in the classroom. Most of them are "absorbed" outside the classroom. The average deaf child is limited in language, in speech, and in lip reading for many years after he first enters school. If the imparting of advice, the giving of correction, and the building of character are to be confined to these means, the average child can experience very little growth for a long period. What medium serves best in this particular phase of life's adjustment and growth at the time it is needed? The answer is the proper use of signs in the proper place. For example, the superintendent has experienced difficulty in the matter of stealing among the pupils. It is his responsibility to reach everyone of the 300 pupils. In the group there are bright, average, and slow children, ranging from 6 to 21 years of age. Some are lip readers; some are not. There is wide variance in their many abilities. The objective is a moral lesson. It is not a school period for speech, for language teaching, or for lip reading. All assemble in the chapel and the superintendent signs the thought that it is a criminal offense and an act against society to take the property of others. The deaf child of 8 years of age will interpret the thought on his language level in this way: "I cannot take Joe's knife." He is thinking of property in terms of things and objects. Joe is his chum. He thinks of Joe in terms of "others." He has grasped the point of the speaker's talk. The 15-year-old pupil might interpret in this manner: "Mr. M—— said that it was bad to steal things from other people." The older students or the members of the high class might interpret the thought as follows: "Society punishes criminals. To take valuables that do not belong to us is a crime. Therefore, remember, never commit the crime of stealing." Each understood the message on his own level although they varied in language ability. This definite understanding on the part of all is the substantiation of the judicial use of signs.

The deaf will always be dependent upon a trade for means of livelihood. Therefore, the school of tomorrow will still have its vocational department, upon which great emphasis will be placed. Selection of trades will be governed by the type of industry found in that section of the country, and for which the deaf can be trained. For obvious reasons, the schools located in the larger cities will be enabled to offer greater opportunities in this training. In order to justify a larger variety of outlets, adequate equipment, and thoroughly trained instructors, there will be a very close relationship between the school, the State department of vocational rehabilitation, and the Federal Vocational Department. Vocational buildings will be constructed and equipped by joint funds, vocational instructors will have to answer the Federal requirements, and trade classes will be open to those who are to be rehabilitated as well as to the deaf pupils of the school. Where ordinarily it would be most difficult to afford, say, two deaf pupils training in welding, such training, if found to be a good outlet in that particular area, will be possible, because several hearing persons under a rehabilitation program will be in the class, thus making it worth while, and thereby giving the two deaf persons this opportunity. This same condition will hold for several other outlets which ordinarily would not be possible. The schools in the smaller States and

in the smaller cities may not be so fortunate. Perhaps, sectional vocational schools will be the answer under such circumstances. Furthermore, in some of the cities there will be close cooperation between the school for the deaf and the local vocational school in the city school system. Certain of the deaf pupils will be permitted to take training at the local city vocational school and still attend the residential school. Likewise, where it can be done, the deaf pupil while at school will be placed in the local shops and industry, part time or full time as the case may be. This will be during his last year or so.

A very important individual, whether he be assigned to the department of rehabilitation or to the school for the deaf, will be the vocational placement officer. He will be the liaison officer between the school and outside industry. He will have much to do with the success of the vocational training and of the placement of the graduates. He will work very close to the vocational-school principal in every way and will have considerable influence in all vocational matters. Social welfare responsibilities will be placed upon his shoulders since such are closely allied to the matter of employment and means of living. All schools will have a very close follow-up of all graduates and will keep permanent records. This position or department will be a vital cog in the school machinery. The vocational placement officer will have to be vocationally trained, thoroughly conversant with the problems of the deaf, fully aware of the industrial set-up, and last but not least, a member of a union. In fact, all vocational instructors will be union members.

One of the very definite weaknesses of the school of today which will be given more thought and which will be greatly strengthened in the school of tomorrow is that of the care and attention given the deaf child outside the classroom. The physical care will not be enough. The period the deaf child spends outside school hours is a very vital part of his growth and development. Here are many opportunities to help and to direct him in his activities, in his thinking, and in his character development. The school of tomorrow, realizing the importance of surrounding the deaf child with strong and properly trained personnel, will follow a system of guaranteeing the best for him during his leisure hours. In selecting those who are to live with and to be "mother" and "father" to the deaf child, great care will be taken so as to secure the proper and suitable people. Intelligent, good-appearing, physically strong, and emotionally stable individuals will be sought. To attract this type the standard of requirements will be raised, which in turn will mean higher remuneration. Standards and salary scales will approximate those for the teacher. No longer will there be the 52-hour or even the 60-hour week. The schedule will approach the 48-hour week. Dignity and importance will be accorded the personnel, and their positions and services considered on the level of those of the teacher. The term "supervisor," as commonly used, will be replaced by more meaningful titles. The officer in charge of the boys or of the girls will be known as the dean. The assistants will be known as counselors or by some similar designated title. Their time will be devoted wholly to the welfare and training of the child. Household tasks of a physical nature will be assigned to others when such have no influence on the necessary training of the child. Through formal and informal teaching, these officers will have much to do with enrich-

ing the lives of the children. There will be opportunities for language instruction concerning the life and activities outside the classroom. There will be periods of instruction in club activities and in organization. Bedtime stories will find a place in the organized effort to broaden life's experiences for the little ones. Through careful selection, there will be instruction in good citizenship and in Americanization. Through close cooperation and better understanding with the classroom teacher, periods of special coaching will be arranged after hours by certain of the counselors for those in need of it. Every opportunity to strengthen and to develop the child will be grasped. The outside hours are full of these great opportunities, and the deaf child will come into his own. To overlook this important phase of his life would be denying him complete growth and development.

In closing, it would be well to point out to you a few problems in our field which will receive attention through careful research, and in this way bring all workers closer together for the general benefit of the deaf child. In the next decade or so there will be considerable research in the field of the education of the deaf. Dependable studies of hundreds of cases under the different methods of educational approach will be carefully made and the results and attainments recorded. Long-range studies will be made of the various types of deaf children and of their achievements. All factors surrounding and affecting the educational life of the child will be thoroughly considered by those who know. The findings will be conclusive and will determine once and for all the claims of this and of that policy. It will be a red-letter day in the life of the deaf children. It will put a stop to propaganda found in magazine articles and in textbooks, which material, by the way, is written more often by persons outside the profession and with no actual teaching experience. Such expression of opinion results only in confusion, causing serious problems in schools and also for parents. Such propaganda is deadly and should stop. It is very harmful to the progress of the profession and to the general welfare of the deaf.

You will recall that the conference of executives of American Schools for the Deaf, an official representative body of this profession, and the National Association of the Deaf, representing the will of the great body of the deaf throughout the country, agreed upon certain definite nomenclature covering the deaf and at the time the hard of hearing, since there should be a very clear demarcation between the two. Yet, in spite of this professional agreement, certain individuals, within and without the profession, continue to spread "their own" nomenclature, and in some cases succeed in having it followed by certain agencies. Surely, those who are in the profession should be in a better position to formulate a set of definitions. The result of this is the continued befogging of understanding. Confusion of mind is the only outcome, and this is most discouraging in a field where handicapped children are already "confused." Federal agencies set up most peculiar and unsubstantiated definitions and state that they have received such from our profession. Surely, the conference of executives, which officially represents the thought of the profession, never supplied such illogical nomenclature.

Consider the following and try to reason it out understandingly if you can. Some writers state that the term "deaf" is confined only to those who are born deaf or who have lost hearing before speech has

been established. If, according to this, a child lost hearing at 6 years of age, he would not be classified as deaf. Despite the fact that this 6-year-old deaf child possesses no hearing, nevertheless these writers and others who think the same way, classify him with the hard of hearing. It is inane and cannot be acceptable to educators and friends of the deaf. There is no logical foundation for such classification. It would be as absurd to classify blind persons who lost sight after age 6 years not as blind but as partially sighted, meaning that they could be aided by the use of proper glasses. If outside agencies, if the public and if the school authorities follow such extreme nomenclature, what a sorry plight and future for the deaf!

Then again one reads that there are (1) the deaf; (2) the profoundly deaf; and (3) the hard of hearing. One wonders if such collection of definitions does not make you think of the Yankee peddler's pants, large enough for any man and small enough for any boy. Who are the "profoundly deaf"? Are they the deaf who are "very, very deaf" or are they the hard of hearing? Ordinarily, when the layman uses the term "profoundly deaf," he is thinking of a person who is very hard of hearing. It has only been in the last few years that the term "profoundly deaf" has crept into the list of "enlightening" definitions. It is as clarifying and as helpful as the term "deafened." A person possesses (1) normal hearing; (2) or defective hearing (hard of hearing); (3) or no hearing (the deaf). For educational purposes, there is no place in our nomenclature for such terms as "profoundly deaf." Such should be cast out and the sooner the better. Example upon example could be given showing what is happening in this very loose and illogical defining of terms. There are those who put into print such a grouping as the following: (1) the deaf; (2) the partially deaf; (3) and the hard of hearing. Who are the partially deaf? Are they not the hard of hearing? Surely we do not wake up now after these many years to find that we have three distinct groups and classifications. And so the confusion goes on and on. Why? This is for you to think about. This is your profession, your field, and your work. Are you able to do your own thinking or do you have to have the outsider do it for you?

Very valuable research will be done in this phase of the work, and out of it will come a very definite and simple nomenclature. The school of tomorrow will not be hampered by loosely concocted nomenclature "manufactured" to carry out certain personal opinions and objectives. The deaf, whether they lost hearing at 1 year or at 10 years of age, will still be deaf. Those who still retain some degree of usable and functional hearing, although truly profoundly deaf or partially deaf, in nomenclature will be classified as hard of hearing. Each will be so grouped and educated as to be afforded the best opportunities for a sound education according to his handicap.

It is sincerely hoped that this paper will give rise to sane thinking and unbiased consideration of all the factors and points set forth so that through it there will come some constructive effort toward the clarification of all issues, the simplification of the problem, and the full realization of common objectives—all in the best interests of the deaf child and his future security and happiness.

Dr. SETTLES. Dr. Bjorlee, I want to thank you very much for your splendid reading of this paper, prepared by President Stevenson. I am sure we appreciate this splendid paper when we realize that Presi-

dent Stevenson has been considerably disabled for the last 6 months because of illness. Undoubtedly he has prophesied many things in this paper which have already been carried out.

I have a letter from Dr. Max A. Goldstein:

I regret sincerely that physical disabilities prevent my attendance at the convention meeting in Fulton. My very best wishes for a successful meeting, and cordial wishes to all.

Here is another letter from one of the directors of our organization, Miss Josephine F. Quinn, principal in the Minnesota school.

My heartiest greetings and best wishes to you and members of the convention. I am sorry not to be with you because I know that with a host like Mr. and Mrs. Ingle, the meeting is bound to be a great success.

Sincerely yours,

JOE QUINN.

At this time I wish to announce the following committees:

Necrology.—Griffing, W. T., Oklahoma, chairman; E. G. Peterson, Montana; R. G. Parks, Georgia; I. S. Fufsfeld, District of Columbia; E. Dunbar, Connecticut.
Auditing.—T. Brill, New Jersey, chairman; J. L. Steed, Oregon; J. R. Kirkley, West Virginia.

Resolutions.—A. L. Brown, Colorado, chairman; M. D. Wood, Missouri; M. S. Hester, California; E. Thornton, Alabama; C. Abbott, Texas.

Nominations.—M. Bodycomb, Pennsylvania, chairman; J. L. Steed, Oregon; A. Thompson, Florida; M. F. Pearce, Missouri; J. L. Utley, South Carolina; E. Tate, Illinois.

The meeting will stand adjourned until 2 o'clock this afternoon.
(Whereupon, at 12:20 p. m., the meeting adjourned.)

GENERAL SESSION, TUESDAY, JUNE 24

Auditorium, Main School Building, 2 p. m.

Presiding: Dr. Carl E. Rankin, superintendent, North Carolina School.

Address: New Frontiers in the Education of the Deaf, S. Richard Silverman, Central Institute.

Paper: An Evaluation of a Preschool Program, Sister Rose Alice, St. Mary's School.

Paper: Testing of Hearing by Acoustic Reflexes, Dr. Augusta Jellinek, New York City.

Paper: Evaluating an Auricular Program, Margaret Bodycomb, dean, Pennsylvania School.

The general session convened on Tuesday afternoon, June 24, 1941, in the auditorium of the Advanced School Building, Dr. Carl E. Rankin, superintendent, North Carolina School for the Deaf, presiding.

Dr. RANKIN (referring to gavel). I feel very much reinforced with this sturdy piece of furniture, which has just come from Mr. Stevenson in California, who presents it to the convention. [Applause.]

It is my great pleasure and delight to present to you first Mr. S. Richard Silverman, of Central Institute for the Deaf, who will discuss the question of New Frontiers in the Education of the Deaf.

New Frontiers in the Education of the Deaf

(S. RICHARD SILVERMAN, Central Institute)

I presume that this convention in itself is a frontier when one considers the demonstrations, the deliberations, the discussions, the exhibits

that you will see before you this week. And, as I look at the array of talent on the program, I feel very humble in discussing this subject.

If I had the qualities of omnipresence and could be everywhere at one time, perhaps on Saturday morning, if you are all still here, I could give you a better idea of the new frontiers in the education of the deaf. Each one of the speakers is elaborating on one specific frontier. I see the frontier of acoustic work, the frontier of improved speech, lip reading, language, vocational education, and frontiers in other areas.

I approach the subject with humility for another reason. I could look in one section of this group and find a dozen individuals who, through wisdom gained by experience, could do better than I, who am a comparative newcomer to this work. I feel that 8, 9, or 10 years in the profession is not very long, as I look at these individuals who have been in the work for 25, 30, and 40 years. Nevertheless, it is well and fitting that a representative of the younger group speak because we shall be called upon to carry on and blaze the trail so wonderfully made before us.

Again, as I contemplate the subject, *New Frontiers in the Education of the Deaf*, I feel that these frontiers are in turn dependent on new frontiers in education, and new frontiers in education are in turn dependent on new frontiers of civilization, if you please.

I am no political commentator, nor an expert on foreign affairs, but I see a significant relationship between the cataclysmic happenings in the world today and our own work in the education of the deaf. On the philosophical front we see certain ideologies rampant, which would deny the sanctity of the human personality and which would, therefore, relegate the education of the handicapped to the background. These ideologies do not admit the existence of handicapped individuals and, therefore, feel that it is a waste of time to spend energy, talent, and resources on educating the deaf or any other type of handicapped person. Therefore, we must be on guard to preserve that philosophy, that sanctity which elevates the dignity of individuals. It has serious implications for us on the philosophical frontier.

Closer to home, again—that is closer to our field—I see another frontier painted on the backdrop of world affairs. We will see a good portion of the world devastated, and in its wake innumerable physical handicaps, the type of which we are equipped to deal with. The nations that have been devastated will have been drained of their talents and resources. I foresee in the future a great wave of educators going abroad wherever war has taken its toll, to carry on the work for the deaf that we are carrying on here.

We have had some very discouraging reports about the fate of some of the famous schools for the deaf in England, and other countries. I might say parenthetically that although we are certainly not in sympathy with the present German philosophy, we know that our oral system had its roots there. We know that the first method of teaching the deaf in America had its roots in France, and I think that we shall have an opportunity in the future to repay de'l Epee, Heinicke, Hill, Braidwood, and all the others to whom we are so deeply indebted.

You may say, "Well, that is far off, and that does not concern us." How about the new frontiers in general education? When I speak of general education I mean the education of the hearing. What do

we observe there? We observe first of all philosophical changes again. We are beginning to reach a balance between the extremes of traditionalism and progressiveness. I hesitate to use the term "balance" because the new approach is neither one; it is neither traditionalism nor fanatic progressivism. The philosophy of pragmatism is being interpreted correctly now, we hope, and the name of John Dewey is not being used in vain.

Some of us, in the education of the deaf, have tried to borrow from educators of the hearing, and sometimes we have erred and perverted those teachings. I think there will be a profound influence on our work from the righting of this fluctuating philosophy.

Too, a more practical consideration is the financial one. Today we are witnessing greater and greater competition for the public moneys. I do not deprecate the new social legislation, such as unemployment and old-age pensions, and more recently defense expenditures. Nevertheless, we face the prospect of competing for funds with such groups. Perhaps our expenditures will not be curtailed, but we face the prospect of not having them increased. It means we will have to do a better job with what we have.

Another aspect of education in general is that we have been hearing that we are to "teach children and not subjects," that our over-all aim is the development of the human personality. We grant that. But, a challenging task now is to measure and evaluate those outcomes. Just evaluating on the basis of reading tests and arithmetic tests, is not evaluating in terms of our long-range objectives. If our aim is to develop a wholesome and greater personality, then we must find ways of measuring whether we are achieving that aim.

Now, you may say it is difficult to measure human personality. It is difficult to measure human traits, but just think back to the days of the pioneer anatomists, who were told they could not describe and measure and categorize the human anatomy. They had to work in the dark, but their ideas have triumphed.

So, I say, that one of our great needs is measurement of the so-called intangible outcomes of experience.

Now we come to the education of the deaf. You see, my first premise is that the education of the deaf depends upon the education and that, in turn, depends on the newer frontiers of civilization. Now, let us get more specific and deal with our own work. I see again a philosophical frontier in the education of the deaf. When we talk of the philosophical frontier, you may say it is another high-sounding thesis on philosophy. No. I want to get right down to the classroom and when we talk of philosophy of the education of the deaf, we talk of why—why do these young people come to us. So often our teachers look upon our children as good lip readers, or poor lip readers, or we say: He knows long division, or doesn't know long division. In our concern for details we forget the long-range purpose.

I sometimes see a teacher struggling with a great, big boy, trying to get across some problem in geometry. She just hammers away at that. I wonder if she ever says to herself, "What good is this; what are we doing it for?" And, sometimes I think (at least I have had this experience in my own teaching), I know that subject matter is not the best thing for this child, but I do not know what to put in its place. People who have gone before have said in the second year of the sec-

ondary school, "We will teach geometry, and so let's hand them geometry." We are still justifying this on the basis of outmoded concepts of transfer of training, and I say, let us get to the thing we are transferring to.

On the philosophical frontier, we have heard this, "Give the children experiences." Well, we are always experiencing. The boy in the geometry class is experiencing. Experience—experience—it has been bandied about so that along with integration and correlation, and other professional jargon, it has become a very nebulous concept.

The problem is to determine what constitutes an educative experience. The boy who is learning to climb through windows and steal, becoming a second-story man, is having experiences which are improving him along that particular sphere of activity. Now, our question is this: "Is that an educative experience?" And, we must clarify our thinking with regard to the deaf. What constitutes an educative experience? Some day I should like to see a symposium on this question, must as I dislike symposia.

Another frontier is the psychological frontier, the frontier that deals with the how of this business. How are we going to put this across? And, here, too, we have different methods. When I talk of the "how" I am talking of speech, lip reading, language, acoustics, rhythm—the means for reaching these children. What are the frontiers there? I am not going to expound any method of teaching speech or teaching lip reading here. That is being done every day this week, but I am saying that we must come back to measurement—perhaps; but this is a psychological influence.

We must measure the results of whatever method we are using. Too often we approach these methods with personal predilections. If we have been trained to use the key system in language, we seem to think that is best. It seems to be human nature to avoid change. We must approach these problems with cold-blooded objectivity and say, "Let's forget for a moment the method by which we have been trained. Show me." Are we going to overthrow the subject of judgment of the teachers? No; not at all, but let us at least approach objectivity, and I think some encouraging beginnings have been made.

It is difficult to say, for example, that an individual has improved 12 percent in speech. That is, what constitutes one unit of improvement in speech? I know that is difficult. But, yet, let us tend toward that sort of thing and use it not as the over-all evidence, but as the clue, and so, with regard to the fields of speech, lip reading, acoustics, and rhythm, I should like to see some objective measures devised.

As we progress along the psychological frontier, let us deal with the problem of what we shall teach our pupils. When I look over the program I see speech, and language, and lip reading, and so I am going to skip over those and leave those for the experts, dwelling for a moment as Dr. Settles has asked me to, on curriculum revision.

Curriculum revision both in the education of the deaf and general education, not so much of the deaf, has become quite the thing. It is quite fashionable to revise the curriculum. State-wide pro-

grams have been carried out. It has been pioneered in Virginia, Texas, and city school systems. If the result of that is dishing out the same old stuff with a different sugar coat, then we might as well abandon this curriculum revision. That is what has happened in many cases; instead of calling it civics, we call it social relations, and instead of calling it reading or language we call it language arts, and you, I am sure, are familiar with all of the professional jargon of curriculum making.

I do not disparage programs of curriculum revision, if they are intelligently undertaken. If I had to go about it, I would go about it in this way. I would observe certain principles. First of all, I believe that in any intelligent program of curriculum revision there should be 100-percent faculty participation. When a teacher is handed materials by the supervising teacher, who says, "I, the omniscient and omnipotent know what is good; you just teach this," I think the teacher becomes more mechanical and less artistic about it. This material has been predigested for her. You may say, "Well, the teacher doesn't have the experience to create her own material." I say this is one of the finest forms of in-service training, that is for teachers who have already been trained.

I had some experience in guiding teachers who were engaged in revising the curriculum in a school for hearing children, and they said they did not realize there was such a wealth of material available until they had to go and find it for themselves.

There is a spirit of democraticness about a group of individuals getting around a table and drawing on each others' talents to formulate a curriculum. Another objection to curricula and courses of study is that when you have completed the course of study the teacher will not use her initiative in finding her own materials. I do not think that is true if the supervision is of the right kind. The intelligently constructed curriculum is a stimulus to the teacher—a guide, and we hope she will supplement it with her own research, her own talent.

Our program, too, must be a flexible one. I have mentioned the aspect of stimulation. I like to think of a curriculum as more than an outline, more than a list of things that have to be taught in the first preparatory and the second preparatory.

Another principle to be observed is that this outline should be accompanied by suggested techniques of presenting the material to our children. The techniques ought to be gathered from the teachers themselves who have had experience.

I should also like to see the entire curriculum evaluated before it assumes any degree of finality. When curriculum makers get together, and we decide that certain materials constitute a feasible unit, let the new teachers try it. Then let them come back and say, "This is what we found was wrong with this technique. We think, perhaps, this material is a little too difficult, or a little too easy." We want that sort of thing in our curriculum. We also want evaluative instruments within the curriculum. Their purpose would be to answer this question: How well are we teaching what we are starting out to teach? At the end of each unit, if you please, or at the end of each given period of time we want to incorporate those instruments. We should also include all the necessary supplementary materials, so that the teacher will have them available.

Another concern on the psychological frontier is the "whom" of education. I have talked about the "why" and I have talked about the "how." And I have talked about the "what." Now the "whom." What about these people with whom we are dealing?

We will leave that to the psychologists to explore, as they are improving methods of testing and classifying. I hope that our methods of testing and classifying will be carried beyond just the intelligence-testing procedures. We also want to call upon our knowledge of the learning process and how it operates in the deaf—how the deaf child thinks. We will call on the psychologists to tell us more about what is happening within these children as they pass through our hands.

A big question that arises in regard to the new frontiers and new research is, How shall we implement this research? What good is it if a thesis gathers dust on some library shelf? How can we implement our research?

If an individual does a study or a thesis and says that using the typewriter will improve the language of the deaf (the primary premise being that it will motivate the children and give us evidence that it does improve it) why do we not get some typewriters for our children? If one is not convinced by the evidence, then he must repeat the experiment with the same technique, and see what he gets.

That leads to some suggestions that I might make in implementing the work that we do on the frontiers. First of all, I think we should have some exchange in sampling. It seems to me that many of our schools for the deaf are not large enough to achieve reliability in certain statistical studies. Let us repeat identical techniques under conditions that exist in other schools. I should like to see an exchange of sampling and experimental procedure.

I have another proposal which perhaps might be naive, which, perhaps, has been proposed before. Laugh it down if you want to—and this proposal comes to mind as I go around the country and visit schools for the deaf and chat with colleagues. They tell us of certain worth-while techniques that are being carried on in their schools, and we listen eagerly. Then we say, "Glad to have seen you," and that is the end of it.

I propose that we have yearbooks of some kind—vital, live yearbooks devoted to consideration of given subjects. Consider the subject of acoustics, for example. Let us get qualified individuals to put down on paper what they know about it. Let us put it together and let teachers have access to it. Then we can say about this compendium, "Here is the Bible for Acoustics. This is our Rock of Ages. Until we find something else, this will have to do. Let this be your guide and stimulus." The same thing might be done for language.

I know we teachers have looked and looked in vain sometimes for materials to carry on in the direction in which some of these frontiers are leading us.

I come now to another proposal, which again may be naive. I am thinking now of the summer schools. You say, "Our teachers go to summer schools and pick up all the new ideas." Let us return to curriculum revision for a moment. I think we could do well, if we do it intelligently, to emulate some of the curriculum work being done with the hearing children by conducting our summer schools on a workshop basis. That is, let Superintendent X say, "Here are eight

of you on my staff whom I think will benefit by this. Go down to this place together, where the experts are gathered"—I am assuming there will be experts there—"you know the needs for a school for the deaf. Consult with the experts and return with something to meet our needs." You may say, "Fantastic!" Well, it is being done, and in some school systems these teachers are being paid to go to summer school, provided they bring home the bacon.

I have seen this plan operate. I asked the curriculum coordinator in one of our large cities in the South, "Has this been worth while, having this group of people"—who incidentally are getting college credits—"work together under expert direction?" He said, "It is one of the finest things we have done. The teachers were told they were to be paid to get something worth while for the community."

I propose for our summer school—and I think we might eliminate those of the mushroom variety—that we pick the talent for those schools and have groups work in consultation with the experts. We have the talent in this profession, and in this room I can see individuals who are ably qualified to direct groups of teachers from other schools.

I am going to close now. In talking of new frontiers I am not forgetting the old ones. There are trails that have been blazed before us, and along some of them we have not cleared the forests, and so I am just going to reiterate some of the things that have been said before, merely to lend emphasis to the new. This is out of respect to those who have gone before. I am thinking of this in terms of adjustment of the deaf to the world as it exists. I know that many of the deaf prefer to be among themselves, but circumstances today require them to rub elbows with the hearing world.

Therefore, permit me to read some pronouncements I put down in 1938. You have heard them before, but I say they are the old trails, but we have to go back over them again.

1. Since difficulty in communication is our basic difference, between the deaf and hard of hearing, the program of the school must concentrate on improving the communication of the deaf child with the hearing. This means a zealous drive for better methods of teaching speech lip reading and language, the chief means of communication between the deaf and the hearing.

2. There should be an adequate program of child guidance to meet the situations created by these differences. This means complete co-operation among all those who contact the child—the supervisors, counselors, teachers, and activity leaders. Their mutual aid and experience can help the deaf child to adjust those differences.

3. The teacher should ever be motivated by the urge to rehabilitate the child as much as she possibly can, and to regard at all times the child as a complete entity whom she is trying to place into a hearing world. He should not be regarded merely as an academic problem of pedagogy.

This entails a profound sympathetic understanding of deaf children on the part of every teacher.

4. My next proposal is a very difficult one to achieve. The program should include as much contact with the hearing child as possible. Since we are trying to fit our end product into such a society, we should try to create these patterns from early childhood so eventually the permanent adjustment will not be so difficult. All of the potentialities

of a well-rounded extra-curricular program are herein involved. Just as with hearing children, we must recognize the principle of individual differences and not attribute these differences or some frequent deviation from the so-called normal to the child's deafness, but to the fact that he is bound to be different in certain respects from others.

This point cannot be emphasized too strongly. Let us not confuse those differences that happen to any group as those common to the deaf. This is often an escape mechanism for those who refuse to meet these distinctions.

5. Another important point is that there must be a tactful attempt at parental education and cooperation, to acquaint overindulgent and underindulgent parents with the reality of the problem.

6. There should be adequate spiritual training based on ethical principles and upon faith in the fact that life is worth living and that the human personality should be revered.

7. In the child's presence the teacher's personality should reflect optimism at all times; I mean a general feeling of getting somewhere. You know we look at our children and think, "Gosh, won't you ever get this?" This reacts unfavorably upon the children. We should help combat any spirit of defeatism that is likely to develop.

8. Lastly, all of us who have anything whatsoever to do with the deaf should always have abiding faith in the fact that it can be done.

DR. RANKIN. I think if we will sit down for a moment and think about this business of education of the deaf we would recognize, in fact, that there are certain points in the procedures and activities of this business where distinct revaluation of our work, the application of new principles and new discoveries to the work, are being developed where, to put it another way, pioneer work is being done. I suspect that one of the most important points in this work is in the preschool development, which has occurred in the education of the deaf in relatively recent years. Certainly I can testify from personal observation that some of the work that is being carried on with these little tots in the preschool work is thrilling and, to my way of thinking, far reaching in its significance for the whole field of educational endeavor.

I think also, unless I am greatly mistaken, that we are to hear from a representative of a school that has been and is distinctly a pioneer in this field. It is with a great deal of pleasure, therefore, that I welcome to our midst Sister Rose Alice from St. Mary's School, Buffalo, N. Y.

AN EVALUATION OF A PRESCHOOL PROGRAM

(SISTER ROSE ALICE, St. Mary's School, Buffalo, N. Y.)

In the educational program of today the properly organized preschool has become a contributing factor for the proper mental and physical development of the child. Scientific training during the formative years before 5 is considered most beneficial for the normal child with no auditory handicap. So preschools for the deaf have been established, for educators of these children are constantly striving that the best methods and procedures offered by modern education for any child should not be denied those deprived of hearing.

At St. Mary's the preschool program has been in operation for

the last 8 years and so it is possible to determine, by a comparative study, the value of this early training for the deaf child.

First of all, of what does the program consist? The preschool, primarily, provides directed and educational play for children from 3 to 5. The procedure, therefore, must consist of much play activity with the same materials and equipment scientifically established for the hearing child of preschool age. There must be indoor and outdoor play equipment, blocks of various shapes and sizes, sense-training material, a variety of toys such as tricycles, scooters, wagons, dolls, and housekeeping appliances; mechanical toys, sand box, picture books, etcetera. It is well to put before the children only a few toys at the beginning of the year, lest they be confused and uncertain about which to select. Little workbenches with hammers, large-headed nails, vise, and other simple carpenter tools help to train the children to be self-reliant. They also provide an outlet for the restless energies of little children which are usually expended in destructive activities.

Even for 3-year-olds, easels are provided for drawing and painting. The work is done with extra large crayons and with paints in show-card colors. At first, only daubs of color appear on the large sheet of drawing paper, but before long the drawings assume shape and meaning.

All of this varied equipment provides a means of self-expression so necessary for the child who lacks the normal mode of expression—speech. It is essential that the teacher allow each child full opportunity for such manifestation. At the same time she must unobtrusively direct all activities so that the proper results may be obtained.

The preschool program for the deaf child must include a great deal of sense training. In these days there is so much attractive material obtainable, such as the wooden shoe to teach lacing, the peg boards, the varicolored educational toys. In addition the Belgian method, in use at St. Mary's offers invaluable visual training. The children, in a spirit of play, match similar and dissimilar objects, objects and pictures, then large printed words, and finally objects with words. This is the foundation of reading, and reading is a very essential part of the education of the deaf.

Vocabulary building, first steps in speech, speech-reading, and reading are given in the preschool. These accomplishments cannot be too carefully developed, for there must be no strain, no warping of the natural happiness and joy of childhood. For the chief aim of the preschool is not to accomplish a predetermined amount of formal school work, but to establish habits that will lead to the proper mental, social, and physical development of the child deprived by deafness of normal adjustments in these important early years.

While the children are playing, the teacher at first goes from one to another, snatching a few moments of attention for babbling exercises. Later, she takes one child aside to introduce him to the first steps in lip reading. The other children soon follow, to see what this new game offers, and so the formal education is begun.

It is practically impossible for any home to supply all this equipment and scientific training. Moreover, every child needs to associate with other children, in order to develop proper social adjustments. Often the handicapped child is ostracized by other children, or kept isolated by a mother wholly at a loss about the proper way

to deal with a child who cannot hear. We are all familiar with the difficulties presented in the home by a little deaf child. We know the personality problems and the frequent inability of the parents to handle the situation.

A few examples will show the value of preschool training in overcoming these difficulties. About 3 years ago a little girl, Beverly, not yet 4 years old, was recommended to St. Mary's by a well-known New York City physician particularly interested in the deaf and hard of hearing. The parents, intelligent and well educated, were unable to cope with the problem, for Beverly was decidedly antisocial, and kept the whole house continually upset. Beverly joined the preschool class. At first she refused to go near the other children, but maintained a surly, belligerent attitude. No kindness won her, so she was brought into the room where the other children were playing, and left to herself. After days of standing aloof and scowling at everyone, Beverly gradually edged closer to the blocks and beads, to the dolls and dishes, and her social adjustment had begun. Moreover, it was gradually discovered that she had enough residual hearing to be of great value in her speech development. Now Beverly is one of the best pupils in her class; with her pleasing personality she contributes, in no small measure, to the peaceful and happy home atmosphere.

Beverly presents a picture of a typical case, with which every teacher of the deaf is familiar. The preschool program was invaluable in effecting in this instance a social adjustment, a result far more important even than the attainment of first steps in school work.

A little boy, Louis, was $1\frac{1}{2}$ years old when his mother discovered he was deaf. She came to St. Mary's and insisted that he come to school. Of course, his coming was delayed, but at the earliest possible moment Louis entered the class. The most important result of his preschool training was the development of his residual hearing. Now he "chatters" all the time and his case illustrates one of the great benefits of the preschool program—namely, early acoustic training.

Little Peggy came to the preschool at the age of $2\frac{1}{2}$, a child inclined to stay aloof from every would-be friend, child, or teacher. Little by little, Peggy developed into a precocious and intelligent child, with unusual personality traits. After spending the Christmas vacation at home this third year of her schooling, her mother wrote as follows:

Peggy was happy to return to school. However, she was very much a member of her family here. She pleased us greatly. She seemed happy and gay all the time and eager to be doing things all the time.

It had been hard to interest Peggy in any activity or play.

She also showed definite advances in lip reading and speaking, but her writing surprised us most of all. She wrote on all available paper. This was all spontaneous on Peggy's part, as we had no idea that she could write all these words and numbers. She also tried hard to read ordinary books in the home.

The letter continues in expressions of gratitude, for there had been much reason for discouragement in Peggy's case.

There was nonsocial Bobby, who was irritable, nervous, and disagreeable. In order to control him at home his parents were obliged to resort to corporal punishment and this, of course, did not help Bobby's disposition. Following the preschool program, which pro-

vides essential play activity with other children, effected a great change. When his mother ventured to take him to a friend's house for dinner, and could report favorably on his behavior, all the patient endeavor and early training seemed very much worth while.

Not all the preschool children through the years presented problems of social adjustment. In every deaf child, however, the dawn of intelligence was not yet awakened. The mental life of the normal child develops rapidly during the years from 3 to 5, but the mind of the little child who does not hear remains practically dormant. The preschool program trains the children in habits of observation and concentration—habits which constitute the foundation for the difficult education of those deprived of hearing.

There are still many children who do not come to school until 5 or 6 years old. At St. Mary's we place these in separate classes from those who have benefited by the preschool program. The teachers report that there is a marked difference in the mental, social, and physical development of the children who have had the earlier training, and those who have lost these important informative years.

The benefits of the preschool program observed at St. Mary's may then be summed up as follows:

1. It stimulates mental activity at normal age of such awakening.
2. Teaches habits of observation and concentration.
3. Relieves difficult situation in home.
4. Provides social adjustment in contact with other children.
5. Affords an earlier discovery and development of residual hearing.
6. Makes possible the training in speech and speech reading during the more plastic years before 5.
7. Results in a nearer approach to normalcy.

Dr. RANKIN. About 18 months ago I had the very great pleasure of spending some days at Central Institute in St. Louis, with one of the most delightful men in the profession, Dr. Max A. Goldstein. There he took me down into the basement and introduced me to a woman who was working in the department of speech correction, if I remember correctly, and I watched with fascination the work going on in that department. More than that, I came to feel that here was a person who had come into our midst from another surrounding and who had brought with her a rich experience and keen intellect, and it is a privilege to us this afternoon to have with us Dr. Augusta Jellinek, New York City, formerly of Central Institute.

TESTING OF HEARING BY ACOUSTIC REFLEXES

(Dr. AUGUSTA JELLINEK, New York City)

All sensory stimuli produce motor reactions in the organism. These may be so intense that they are easily visible to the observer, or they may be so slight that they are put in evidence by special methods of registration only. However, reactive movements, reflexes, are always indications of some kind of reception of the stimulus by the subject. These reflex movements occur always on the basis of changes in the tonus of the muscles (Lowenstein, Tullio, and others) and may therefore be designated as "tonic reflexes." For the purpose of testing perception or any kind of reception of the stimulus by an organism, we may use such tonic reflexes as indi-

cations of the effectiveness of the stimulus. For instance, if a person shows tonic motor reactions to an acoustic stimulus, we may conclude that he has perceived this sound; whether this perception enters his consciousness is another question. Only if very subtle methods of observation are used, may we state also the reverse, that absence of tonic motor reflexes (under favorable experimental conditions) means that the stimulus has not been perceived. Observation by inspection only is not sufficient to allow such a statement, as the slight involuntary expressive movements accompanying such stimulations are invisible to the eye and only more vivid reactions may be seen.

Starting with these considerations, we developed a method of testing hearing by acoustic reflexes. The results are of a different nature from those obtained by audiometric records. They do not substitute audiometric measurements, but they complement them, and sometimes they give positive results in cases which do not respond to the audiometric tests.

Acoustic reflexes occur in many organisms beginning with the very primitive ones. We know several kinds of annelidae (deep-sea worms) which react vividly to sound by retracting their tentacles as soon as a sound is made. Though many kinds of insects show rather complicated reactions to sounds, as yet no acoustic reflexes have been described in them. Fish, amphibia, reptiles, birds, and mammals show very definite acoustic reflexes; these differ according to the nature of the stimulation and to the specific biologic structure of the subject. On many animals different pitch has different effects. We find that they respond with a maximal reaction to a limited range of pitch, while we do not see such reactions to sounds above or below this range of frequency. This does not mean that these animals cannot hear other tones than those to which they have visible reactions. It is quite probable that we should be able to put some tonic motor reaction in evidence even in those sound ranges, if we were to use very subtle methods of recording them.

The labyrinth, which is the most important sound-perceiving organ, is at the same time an organ of spatial orientation, and of spatial organization. It is also one of the organs which have a decisive influence on the tonus of the voluntary and involuntary muscles. Therefore, the acoustic reflexes are partly shaped by the immediate condition of the labyrinth. On the other hand, they depend on the state of the organism as a whole for their form and for their development. This is obvious if we consider the biological function of the sense of hearing; it is not only a sense of communication, but also a sense of warning. As such it orientates the organism toward the stimulus, which might reveal the nature of some dangerous phenomenon. Tullio has shown in an elaborate analysis how every stimulus affecting an organism is not only perceived in its nature, but also in its localization. In the case of sound the acoustic reflexes cause the animal, or even man, to turn the eyes and the head toward the sound before even any voluntary component can play a role. Other activities according to the subject's nature are an approach to the sound source, or a flight from it. These are fundamental biological mechanisms, which orientate animal or man automatically. An indispensable condition of their harmonious occurrence is an undisturbed state of both laby-

rinths. If this is the case, both labyrinths cooperate harmoniously, balancing each other. In this way the stimulations coming from one side and tending to orientate the organism toward this side are neutralized by stimulations of equal intensity coming from the other side. Thus in spite of the constant sound, stimulation stability is guaranteed.

Acoustic reflexes of very definite character become evident as soon as this equilibrium is disturbed by injury to the labyrinth either on one side only, or in different ways on both sides.

Tullio could show that perforation of the bony wall of the labyrinth amplifies the acoustic reflexes to a high degree. While strong sound stimulation would provoke reactions even in normal animals, as soon as a hole was made in the bony wall, reactions assumed a definite direction in correlation with the location of the lesion. Pigeons showed the phenomenon very clearly, a hole in the lateral semicircular canal produced a movement of the head, in a horizontal plane, away from the sound. A hole in the posterior semicircular canal provoked a movement of the head downward, while the perforation of the superior canal produced a movement of the head upward. A hole in the wall of the utricle produces rotation of the head. As the upward and downward movements accompanying perforation of the vertical canals contain also horizontal components, perforation of the posterior and superior canals do not neutralize each other in a complete stability, but the animal still responds with a horizontal movement of the head while the vertical movements have been neutralized. Tullio could show analogous reflexes in fish as well as in mammals, after perforation of the labyrinth. Not only were movements of the head observed, but also eye movements, as soon as the head was fixed in an immobile position. These were especially evident in rabbits where the bulbous, after perforation of the canal, followed very clearly the same directions as formerly of the head. Perforation of all six canals increases the general acoustic reflexes, but if the lesions are made symmetrically, no more reflexes in one definite direction are to be seen.

Tullio observed under the binocular microscope that the endolabyrinthine liquid, the perilymph, shows different acoustic figures (Lissajous figures) formed by currents which occur in characteristic relation to single sounds or to speech sounds. He could also register and analyze complicated movements of the head (accompanied by motor reaction of the body) which occur in typical forms with definite speech sounds. Equally he found that movements of the eyes and of the pupils are closely connected with definite sounds. These movements are so small that they must be observed under the microscope.

From these observations Tullio evolved the theory that the acoustic reflexes as well as other reflexes generating from sensory stimuli have the function to orientate the organism toward the sound (or other stimulus) automatically. They put the organism with great exactness in a position to react quickly; therewith they perform their biological function as "warning" mechanisms.

That the acoustic reflexes are very old, phylogenetically, and of vital importance is shown by the fact that they remain after asportation of great parts of the brain. The basal ganglia of the brain stem are sufficient to allow their functioning (pigeons, cats, monkeys).

The general tonic state seems to have also some influence on the course and intensity of the acoustic reflexes; many of them are postural

reflexes. Sleep, narcosis, animal hypnosis, or relaxation alone—all states of low tonic tension—seem to be favorable to the occurrence of such motor reactions. They are especially obvious in the state of animal hypnosis, where sound of a certain nature produces awakening from the tonic state of immobility, in which the animal is lying on his back or side. In an analogous way the waking from the sleep by sound begins with a tonic reflex, which changes the tonic state of the whole person till he wakes up. Here again we find the biological “warning” function in action.

In man acoustic reflexes are as frequent as in animals, but they are often inhibited to a high degree. In children they are more frequent and more vivid than in adults, and in cases of hearing impairment we find acoustic reflexes which are practically lacking in adults.

Pupilar reflexes as well as movements of the bulbi are frequent, but in the normal person they are so small that they cannot be made evident if not observed by special means. Tullio described the apparent wandering of a lighted point in the dark, if a sounding tuning fork was put on the subject's head. This illusory movement of the stimulus was caused by a real movement of the bulb toward the sound. It occurred in the dark only, as otherwise the optic stimulations keep the bulb in a fixed position. Pupilar reactions following every phase of the sound are in evidence in nearly every normal person by microscopical inspection. Nystagmiform movements of the bulbi in hard-of-hearing ears occur in a great number of people, if the ear is stimulated by strong sounds. These reflexes have been investigated by Froeschels, who uses them as hearing tests; they appear only with tones which are actually heard—the subject tells us so if able to speak—and, on the other hand, are always a symptom of an abnormal ear. The most obvious and vivid acoustic reflex is the general muscular reflex easily observed in every person who is frightened by a sudden strong noise and shudders. This strong reaction spreads over all the muscles of the body; it is a tonic reflex characterized by a sudden decrease in tonus with consequent increase, and we may interpret it as an attempt at flight from over-strong acoustic stimulation. The turning of the head toward the sound or the verging of the eyes toward its source may also be a reflex, especially in small children, but it may also be an action.

The acoustic reflexes become weaker with repetition as well as other reflexes and we cannot produce them indefinitely. After a number of repetitions the reflexes become weaker or cease altogether though undoubtedly the subject perceives the sound as well as before. It seems, therefore, that it is the function of these acoustic reflexes to adapt the organism to sound and to orientate toward it. A person with good hearing, being the whole day under the influence of such reflexes, shows them only in a very weak degree, while, on the contrary, a subject with impairment of hearing may show very strong reactions if tested with intense stimuli seldom heard by him. As he is not usually under such stimulations, there is no adaptation active to inhibit these reactions.

This is one of the reasons why we can use acoustic reflexes as hearing tests. They work differently from audiometric tests, but there are cases of deafness in which we can show evidence of hearing remnant by reflexes that do not respond to the audiometer.

We use strong brusque sounds in the acoustic reflex tests; in most cases we send them directly into the meatus by means of a rubber tube.

For normal ears, this stimulation is far too strong, and the subject responds with a general muscular reflex, with grimaces and with a general flight reaction, often under protest, if he is able to speak. Whenever such a strong reaction is lacking there is some abnormality in acoustic perception though the peripheral organ may be normal; such reactions may be found in cases with central hearing impairment, in the feeble-minded, or audi-mute children. If hearing is present at all, we usually see palpebral and pupilar reflexes. It is important to observe the speed of these responses; if for instance the palpebral reflex is retarded, this indicates again an abnormal state of the acoustic apparatus.

Especially impressive are the nystagmiform acoustic reflexes, described by Froeschels. Some hard-of-hearing people show one or several quick shiftings of the bulbus to one side, absolutely analogous to nystagmus if strong sounds are sent into their ears. Sometimes the movement goes in temporal directions, at other times it goes in nasal directions, also some reflexes may occur vertically. It is important to note that these reflexes occur only with sounds heard by the subject, while sounds only slightly higher or lower and of equal intensity fail to produce such reflexes. If the sounds are not heard it is not possible to produce these eye movements by blowing air into the meatus (except in cases with a vestibular fistula symptom). Testing a wide range of sounds (5 octaves) with the whistles of the *urbantschitsch harmonika*, we get a picture of the hearing remnant of a patient, even if he does not know what hearing is and is not accustomed to listen; this is the case of many deaf-mutes. Some of them will answer at the audiometer only at intensities far above their real threshold because they do not understand exactly what is asked of them and cannot recognize faint perceptions. The reflex method is also independent of the subject's intention to respond; the reflex can neither be produced nor inhibited at will. It is no response to pure sounds, but pure sounds do not occur biologically and have no biological importance.

In many cases in which eye reflexes do not occur, it is possible to produce tonic reflexes of the head and of the arms, as well as mimic reflexes provoked by sounds. The head movements manifest themselves as inclination or rotation of the head in different directions. The arm movements consist in tonic variation of the arms, which are extended upward, sidewise, or forward. We often see slight vacillation of the extended arms toward up or down, or movements of the fingers. Sometimes the head movements assume the form of a real head *mystagmus*. Usually these movements are provoked by sounds sent directly into the meatus, but in rare cases such reactions may also be produced by loud sounds from some distance (Jellinek, Tullio). The reflex tests described here are very valuable for the detection of residual hearing, which, according to our opinion, should be trained and developed as far as possible in every single case. But they show only rather raw reactions and they operate with very strong stimulations, not allowing any more delicate analysis.

A very fine test for the understanding of speech and for the real distance in which speech still is heard has been elaborated by Loewenstein. It consists in the simultaneous registration of the tonic variations occurring in the muscles of the head, the hands and feet as well as in the state of the circulation and respiration. All these

functions are recorded simultaneously. The subject sits on the chair of the recording apparatus in a quiet room, without seeing any proceedings of the recording. Every slight unconscious movement of his hands, his head, and his feet is recorded on a smoke drum, as well as his respiration (abdominal and thoracic) and his circulation. After he has become calm, he is spoken to and according to the contents of the communication, characteristic changes in the graph occur. It is possible to see changes there which are completely invisible to the observing eye, and unconsciously made by the subject. Suggestions of pleasure, fear, and expectation produce peculiar forms of the graph and show that they have been understood. Stimuli which do not have special significance but affect the subject only as sensory phenomena provoke also changes in the tonic state of the organism and therewith in the graph.

The phenomena underlying these changes in the tonus of the muscles are of various nature. As understanding plays a role, the recorded movements are expressive movements of a nature similar to mimic movements. Expectation expresses itself in a characteristic form, and the same is true of some other basic feelings.

Now we see the following reactions in the graphs: Everything that is understood comes out in clear-cut changes. The shock by an unexpected stimulus (not spoken words) gives also a characteristic figure, which cannot be produced, at will, many times, as normally it ceases to appear after several repetitions. It is the shock which produces the reaction, not the stimulus itself. However, if in a situation of quiet relaxation, such a stimulus is applied to the subject, it will produce such a more or less intense shock, which is its tonic fluctuations. Sometimes we find reactions on the record where the subject says that no sound has reached him. Such behavior is frequent in hysteric individuals who, although reacting even to the contents of the communication, do not know what they have heard, and, often, that they have heard anything.

It is obvious, from these results, that even in cases of organic deafness, there is a very great factor of physical complication. We may consider this as fluctuation of acoustic attention by far exceeding the normal range, or perhaps it is the fact that hard-of-hearing persons trust their acoustical perceptions so little that they have entirely diverted their attention from them and no longer listen to very weak stimulations as come to them from soft sounds.

Practically this method allows us to find out the real capacity of hearing and to state the maximal distance or the minimal sound intensity to which a subject still reacts. Most probably it will be possible to develop an audiometric method, in which the real acoustic threshold will be tested, not by the patient's estimate, but by his unconscious expressive movements. Although we shall not always know whether these sounds provoking clear reactions are really heard consciously or not, we know that they do affect the organism. If they are able to do this, we must try to bring even these slighter intensities into the realm of consciousness by acoustic training. If we have attained this goal, the person's acoustic threshold also has been increased and we may try again to make audible, for him, the lower intensities, inasmuch as he must, again, learn to hear those sounds which provoked expressive movements without his knowing it.

Dr. RANKIN. I am sure that those of you who have visited that grand institution for education of the deaf at Mount Airy would have had somewhat the same experience I had, although whether you would be quite as frank about it, I don't know. When I was beginning with the work I had the great privilege of visiting Mount Airy. There I found a rare spirit. I found a lady whose title, I think, at that time was "coordinator of educational activities." As I went around the grounds, into the classrooms, and the shop with that lady, and watched her enthusiasm and her spirit, and the spirit she created, I came to feel why it is the school enjoys so fine a prestige.

It is, therefore, with a rare great pleasure I present to you Miss Margaret Bodycomb, dean of the Pennsylvania School for the Deaf at Mount Airy.

EVALUATING AN AURICULAR PROGRAM

(MARGARET BODYCOMB, dean, Pennsylvania School for the Deaf)

The quotation attributed to Robert Louis Stevenson—"It is better to travel hopefully than to arrive"—seems to have a particular significance in considering the field of auricular training. Our distinguished predecessors worked long and hopefully, and we are still hopeful, but no one has arrived at any definite conclusion or solution to this subject in which we are all so vitally interested.

One has only to look back over the proceedings of the convention covering a period of years to realize how much time and consideration have been given this matter of stimulation and training of residual hearing. The papers presented with the discussions that followed would fill a sizable volume of interest, not only from an historic standpoint, but rich in valuable suggestions as well.

These glimpses into the past are fascinating, but time-consuming. I found it very much like setting out to rearrange a bookcase and being tempted to dip into every favorite book on the shelves. There was so much of interest that it was difficult to keep to the topic in mind. I must confess that while my delving into the past has been all too superficial, it has brought to light a number of very interesting predictions, some of which have been realized, and others that we can only hope will be fulfilled when and if we arrive.

At the convention held in Berkeley, Calif., in July 1886, Dr. Gillespie presented the following statistics as the result of a "list of questions" (notice it was not called a questionnaire in those days) that he had sent to all of the institutions for the deaf:

1. Question. "Has there been a general test of the hearing made in your school?" Out of the 35 institutions heard from 22 answered in the affirmative.
2. Question. "How many have you found with sufficient hearing to distinguish vowel sounds?" The answer from those 22 institutions was 80.
3. Question. "How many have been taught wholly aurally?" The answer to that was 35. That included his own institution.
4. Question. "How many are taught both aurally and orally?" By this question he meant to bring out how many were taught with a view to cultivating the hearing. Whether the superintendents all answered it in that way it was difficult to say. The answer was 309.
5. Question. "How many were taught aurally previous to the year 1885?" The answer was 53.

Dr. Gillespie's prediction at that time was that at least 15 percent of the pupils in schools for the deaf had "sufficient hearing, though

dormant, to be developed." At the same meeting Mr. Currier read a paper on *A Method of Aural Instruction, Suggested by Experiments for the Development of Hearing*, at the New York Institution. Quote:

I shall ask attention in the hope that an increased interest may be awakened which shall be productive of benefit to at least a portion of the deaf now under instruction in the institutions of America, it having been ascertained that there are in every school those possessing a remnant of hearing who, by the use of some form of instrument, are enabled to perceive voice sounds, and by study brought to such a condition that they can readily comprehend language when addressed to the ear.

Another report dealt with audiometric tests made on 96 pupils at the Columbia Institution, Kendall Green, by Prof. F. D. Clark, of New York, one of the co-inventors of that particular audiometer. This instrument had also been used in the New York, New Jersey, Illinois, and Arkansas Schools.

In our own school the first mention of any attempt to test or train hearing occurs in the annual report of 1879 when Richard S. Rhodes, of Chicago, came to the school to demonstrate the audiphone, familiar to all of us as a fan-shaped sheet of vulcanized rubber held against the upper teeth. Four years later Miss Emma Garrett, then principal of the oral branch of the school, reported rather discouragingly as follows:

The pupils in our school are classified in the following manner: Congenital mutes and those who have lost hearing before acquiring speech are placed by themselves, semimutes are classed together, and semideaf pupils form another class.

We believe from our own experience, and from accounts that have reached us from other sources, that the hearing of the semideaf and of those who have a very slight appreciation of sound is capable of improvement; therefore, we work to develop their hearing, while not ignoring lip reading, lest the hearing of some of them may never become sufficient without its aid.

After a 3 months' trial of the audiphone with all pupils who appeared to have the slightest appreciation of sound, we have discontinued its use, as it has not seemed to aid the hearing of any of our pupils. I wish distinctly to state that I do not condemn the instrument as useless in all cases, I only say it has not seemed to aid those on whom we have carefully experimented.

Skipping over some years to the twentieth convention held in Virginia in 1914 with Dr. Harris Taylor, chairman of the auricular section, the general tone of the program would indicate that interest in this field had waned more or less during the intervening years. Dr. Taylor said he had become disgusted at seeing so many instruments to aid the hearing lying around unused in schools for the deaf. He further stated that in his school he did not wish to use any of the instruments with which the teachers were familiar, because, to his mind, they were associated with failure or inefficiency in auricular instruction. Before introducing any instruments in his school he made a survey of all electrical instruments he could find in New York. He finally had the manufacturers of the Harper oriphone make a group instrument to accommodate a teacher and six pupils—the first instrument of its kind to be used in a school for the deaf. He reported the results to be more pleasing than he had dared to expect.

Spanning a few more years, we come to the twenty-second convention, which was a joint meeting with the American Association held in Mount Airy, June 1920. Papers read by Dr. Goldstein and Dr. Wright gave in detail their respective procedures in stimulating hear-

ing. The work was individual in character, using the unaided voice. We are all familiar with the success of these smaller schools.

It was estimated that about 2 percent of the pupils in schools for the deaf were then receiving auricular training. In the discussion that followed it was suggested that from 40 to 45 percent of all pupils could profit in some degree by such training.

During the next decade the audiometer came into more general use, and the systematic testing of hearing became a matter of routine in many schools for the deaf. Group hearing aids employing both air and bone conduction were installed, and large numbers of pupils were exposed to auricular training for short periods every day. The enthusiasm with which these devices were received probably accounts to a large degree for the extravagant claims that were sometimes made. While the group instrument made it possible to reach a larger number of pupils with less effort, the same painstaking procedure had to be pursued in teaching a group as had been used in teaching the individual child with the unaided voice.

In 1935 and 1936 an extensive and comprehensive survey of medical and educational phases of the extent of testing, medical treatment, and utilization of residual hearing in schools for the deaf was made by the committee on the use of residual hearing of the American Association, with another follow-up in 1940. A comparison of the two surveys made by Mr. O'Connor, the chairman of the committee, was published in the *Volta Review* in June 1940. A summary of the report follows:

Sixty-six resident, 122 day, and 30 private and Canadian schools were circularized for information, and of these, 43 residential, 52 day, and 11 private and Canadian schools replied, which is slightly less than the number of replies received in 1935.

The 106 schools who replied reported a total of 432 group hearing aids and 56 pitch-range audiometers. Two hundred and sixty-four of these hearing aids had been purchased since 1935. This represented an over-all increase of approximately 60 percent in 5 years, and indicated an average of 4 group aids to a school. Only 9 schools reported that they had no group hearing aids of any kind. Five of these were small day schools and 2 were small private schools. However, 50 of the 106 schools reported that they neither owned nor had the use of a pitch-range audiometer; 37 of the 52 day schools reporting fell in this group; 20 schools had 5 or more group aids.

Day schools were still lagging behind residential schools in the matter of securing group hearing-aid equipment and audiometers. This was generally the fault of local or State boards of education or State or city directors or city school superintendents who had not yet absorbed the impact of the need of the children in these day schools. Relatively, the need for and the beneficial use that can be made of good hearing aid equipment are generally greater in day schools than in residential schools.

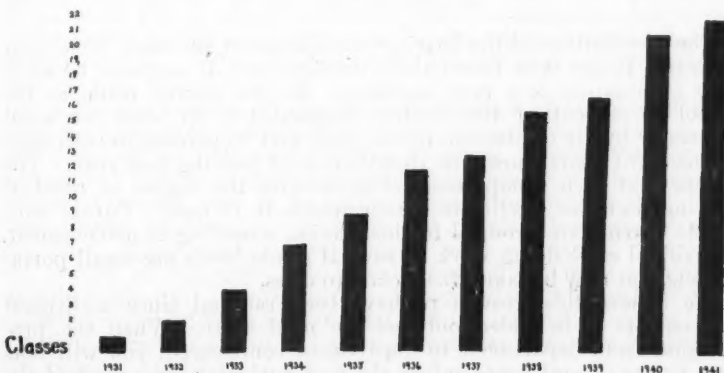
Various types of standard group hearing aids were in use in the various schools. A number of schools had been carrying on experiments with various types of equipment made by technicians of the school. The New Jersey School and Public School 47 in New York had been experimenting with selective amplification for classes of children, and the Mount Airy and Lexington Schools had been building their own equipment for several years, with the latter school extending the study to consider the provision of an individual microphone for each child. The Illinois School had continued its experiment also with the teletactor. The Rhode Island School, the Minnesota School, the Arkansas School, the Illinois School, the Mount Airy School, and the Lexington School all had either a public address system or wired seats in their auditoriums, and the Minnesota School had sound moving-picture equipment in addition. The Illinois School also had an unusual feature in its new acoustic building, each room of which is completely wired for hearing aids. This unit is given over entirely to the extensive utilization of residual hearing of those pupils who can profit by such an approach.

In the 106 schools there were approximately 304 classes or about 3,000 pupils using group-hearing aids the major part of the day. It was apparent therefore, that since much more equipment was being used for about the same number of pupils, greater emphasis was being given to the provision of almost continuous opportunity throughout the day for those pupils with obviously more useful degrees of residual hearing, possibly with losses of 70 or 80 decibels or less, with a consequent reduction in the time provided for those pupils with more severe losses above this point. This was undoubtedly a logical and expedient development in the light of the limits that must necessarily exist as to the possibilities of securing equipment, and reflected the influence of the careful thought that had been given to the problem since the previous survey. About 1,800 of the approximately 3,000 pupils in classes using hearing aids most of the day had average losses of more than 60 decibels, while approximately 450, or about 15 percent, in the opinion of their teachers in the schools for the deaf, could probably succeed in regular public-school classes if they had the advantages of either good group or portable hearing-aid equipment.

Further evidence that considerable thought had been given by administrators of schools for the deaf and by teachers of the deaf to this question of the use of residual hearing since the survey of 5 years previous was reflected in the fact that approximately 296 teachers from the 106 schools had taken special courses dealing with this activity since 1935. Twenty schools were following organized courses of study, but unfortunately none of these 20 schools wished to release its outline to other schools for recommended use. This was further evidence that the problem had been thought through carefully enough to reveal to many that the utilization of residual hearing is a very difficult curricular activity to catalog logically and sequentially.

This is rather a long introduction to evaluating one auricular program. However, the growth of our program is significant of the general expansion throughout the United States and Canada. These graphs which I am about to show do not take into consideration the previous individual work that had been done, nor do they include experimental work with small groups using the electrophone, the vibraphone, and the Phipps unit. We consider that our program began with the first class that used the hearing aid all day long.

Growth of Auricular Program Pennsylvania School for the Deaf 1931 ~ 1941

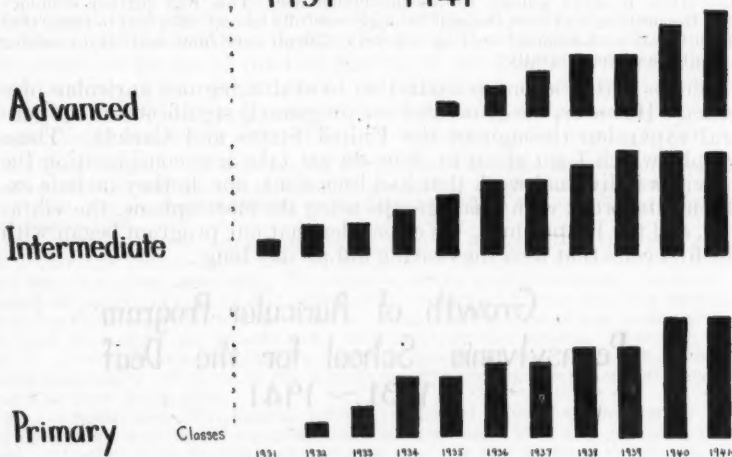


The first group of pupils, selected in 1931 from the intermediate department, was not very well graded according to achievement, but they were soon working together, and their interest in being as they termed it, the "pioneer class", made up for other shortcomings. They remained together until they were graduated in June 1939.

The first chart shows the increase in hearing aids year by year from 1 in 1931 to 22, or 40 percent of the classes, in 1941.

The second chart shows the increase by departments with a progression in each department and from one department to another. At the present time with the distribution, primary, 8; intermediate, 7; advanced, 7; it is difficult to tell whether or not the saturation point has been reached.

Growth of Auricular Program by Departments Pennsylvania School for the Deaf 1931 ~ 1941



The distribution of the hearing remains about the same from year to year. It has been found that complete lack of response to auditory stimulation is a rare condition. In one survey made at the school 95 percent of 460 children responded to at least one tonal frequency by air conduction in one year, and 85 percent in both ears.

The third chart shows the distribution of hearing last year. The benefit that each group receives varies with the degree of residual hearing and the intelligence with which it is used. Pupils with usable hearing are grouped for instruction according to achievement. Individual cases doing work on several grade levels use small portable sets that may be taken from class to class.

We believe this growth to have been rational since additional instruments were added only as the need arose. When the progression from department to department commenced, you will note that it was several years before the first auricular class reached the

advanced department, but since then one or two classes have been transferred every year. The first class was graduated in 1939, a second this year, and a third will be graduated in 1943. This seems to indicate that an auricular class will be ready for graduation every alternate year.

While certain adjustments have been made in the school program, the increasing number of classes has been assimilated with surprisingly little disturbance to the regular routine. In the advanced department where the teaching is departmental, it has been necessary to have the teachers rotate instead of the pupils.

Distribution of Hearing Loss Pennsylvania School for the Deaf 1939 ~ 1940

Group	Average Decibel Loss	Ears Tested	
		R.	L.
I	40 ~ 50	2	5
II	50 ~ 70	20	15
III	70 ~ 80	35	30
IV	80 ~ 100	480	487
Total		537	

Miss Louise Upham, who recently retired as principal of the primary department, worked out a carefully planned procedure with the entering pupils which has been highly successful in establishing in the young children an eager and natural attitude toward the use of hearing aids. This outline has never been printed as theories have changed with experience.

A statistical analysis of speech characteristics of our pupils compiled from electrically transcribed records made a year or so ago has been prepared for publication by Drs. Hughson, Ciocco, Witting, and Lawrence. The words read by the pupils consisted of all vowel and consonant sounds used in as many combinations as possible. The words were familiar to all of the 366 pupils whose voices were recorded. While many characteristics were evaluated, time does not permit giving more than one or two of the most significant facts brought out. The comparison between those who had received auricular instruction and those who had not showed in general:

1. The auricular group had more normal expression regardless of age, or age of onset.

2. With advancing age there was found to be some improvement in speech characteristics of both groups, but the improvement was more marked in those who had had auricular instruction.

3. In the auricular group the improvement was continuous with duration of training, while no comparable improvement was observed in the nonauricular group.

4. The most significant fact brought out was that pupils who had been given the advantage of auricular instruction from the time of entrance had superior speech to those who had had 1, 2, or 3 years of instruction before using a hearing aid.

Probably other schools have also found this to be true. This has led us to give all entering pupils the benefit of auricular instruction. Then, after sufficient trial, those obviously not responding are transferred to nonauricular classes.

Considering the amount of attention that has been focused upon the acoustically handicapped child in the public schools, it is surprising that we admit so few of the hard of hearing each year. With an average enrollment from 535 to 540 and an entering group numbering not less than 50, there were 34 pupils in the whole school last year who could be classed as hard of hearing. All had marked speech difficulties and were in need of lip reading, as well as remedial work in reading and language. No doubt a number of these pupils will return to public school.

We are particularly fortunate in having the wholehearted cooperation of the medical committee of our board of directors through whose efforts the post of resident otolaryngologist was established at the beginning of the 1939-40 school year with the thought that the correlation of clinical examination and audiometric level would prove to be significant from several angles. This procedure also placed the testing of hearing on a safe as well as a more scientific basis.

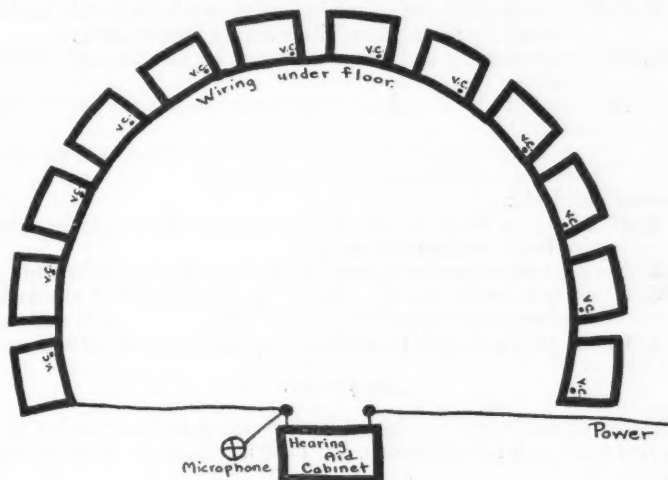
Although the matter of acoustic equipment is to be given consideration in this section later in the week, Mr. Hester has suggested that an outline of our present policy be included in this paper, since the success of any auricular program depends to a large degree upon the quality of the acoustics equipment and the efficiency with which it is maintained.

At the present time every hearing aid in use in the school has been reconditioned or constructed by our chief engineer according to the specifications of an acoustical consultant, in cooperation with Dr. Walter Hughson, director of the Otological Research Laboratory, Abington Memorial Hospital, and a member of our board. This is no reflection on the efficiency of the commercial instruments which we have used, for each in its own way contributed to the efficiency of the present system. However, the initial cost of each instrument has been greatly reduced, servicing has been simplified, and with a portable replacement instrument for use in emergencies no class is ever deprived of the use of a hearing aid for more than an hour at a time. This in itself is a vast improvement over the days when instruments had to be returned to the laboratory for checking and repairs, and were sometimes gone for weeks at a time. The use of standard equipment, with a generous reserve supply of replacement parts kept in stock, insures immediate minor repairs.

The responsibility for the care of the equipment begins with the pupils and teachers. Even the small children can be taught to handle

the headphones with care, and the teachers should know when the hearing aid is not functioning properly.

With the steady expansion of the auricular program, the amount of acoustic equipment has increased to the point where the engineer's staff could scarcely take care of the routine testing. Last year one of the teachers was assigned this particular service, as outlined below.



Microphone - Crystal (Uni-directional D-104)
For speech only

Amplifier - 3 stage - Hi-Mu Triode, Phase-Inverter,
Beam Power Output

Phonograph - Pick-up Crystal (Model B-10-07, F.P.-10)

Volume Controls - T-pad

Head Phones - Western Electric 528

Cabinets - Made in carpenter shop or second-hand phonograph-console cabinet type

Total cost of instruments - present prices - \$150.
(including wiring of rooms)

ROUTINE OF CHECKING HEARING AIDS

Minor repairs and weekly inspection of all hearing aids are made by one of the teachers, Mr. Robert E. Roach. Major difficulties are reported to the chief engineer, Mr. Clendening.

Amplifier:

1. Turn on set—use earphone. If there is "feedback," the amplifier is in working order.
2. Check input and output plugs to see if they make good contact.

Earphones (phone held to ear):

1. Test cap on earphone to make sure it is tight and free from rust.
2. Pull wire on plug end of cord to see that wire is firmly soldered into metal tip; to see that tip is firmly held in plug.
3. Roll cord at plug end between fingers to test for any break in the wire.
4. Roll cord at phone end between fingers to test for any break in the wire.
5. Listen for distortion of tone. This may be caused by a bent diaphragm or dust inside the earphone.

Rheostat and jack:

1. If there is a break in the current, it may be caused by a loose wire from the rheostat or jack.
2. Rotate volume control slowly to detect a defective rheostat.
3. Check nut that holds rheostat or the nut that holds the jack in bakelite place to see if they are tight.
4. Check plug and jack to see that they make good contact.

EQUIPMENT

Number of classrooms equipped with hearing aids according to the attached plan and specifications, 22, 1 replacement set used in emergencies.

Assembly rooms.—One equipped for 70 or more pupils. Another being wired during the summer. Instruments same as those used in classrooms. Pupils use their own headphones. The number of outlets may be increased as needed in units of 10.

For experimental purposes.—With the profoundly deaf there is a high quality set which the engineer describes as follows:

Western Electric microphone, No. 630-A; transformer coupled to pentode which is resistant coupled to phase inverter, coupled in turn to class A beam power output. Headphones are Western Electric No. 711-A. Phonograph pick-up crystal, FP-18. Volume controls, 25 ohm, T-pads.

Public-address system.—David Bogen Co. model DX30 using two speakers. Microphone, crystal. Phonograph pick-up, crystal B-10.

Recorder.—R. C. A. model No. M1-12701 portable disc recording equipment 100-115 volts, 60 cycles, 130 watts. Records used: Audio discs (yellow label).

Audiometer.—Sonotone model No. 1 with a Pilling-Witting auditory masker.

Dr. RANKIN. Now that this splendid program is concluded, I am going to turn the meeting back to our very energetic vice president, Dr. Settles.

Dr. SETTLES. I wish to call attention to the 4:30 meeting of the Council of Teachers of the Deaf and the Hard of Hearing in Public Schools, and the meeting of the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, also at 4:30.

(Whereupon the meeting was adjourned at 4:20 p. m. Tuesday, June 24, 1941.)

SPECIAL MEETING OF THE CONFERENCE OF EXECUTIVES OF
AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY

(EDMUND B. BOATNER, superintendent, American School at West Hartford, Conn.)

A special meeting of the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf was convened in Superintendent Ingle's office, Missouri School for the Deaf, at 4:30 p. m. Tuesday, June 24, 1941, with Dr. Percival Hall presiding. Thirty-four members and five associate members were present.

At the request of Dr. Hall, the bylaws and constitution were read by the secretary in order to clear up any possible misunderstanding as to membership in the conference. Dr. Hall then stated that he had no paper to read, but would make a few remarks somewhat later concerning Gallaudet College. Dr. Hall then called on Dr. Ignatius Bjorlee, chairman of the executive committee, to submit a report on matters relating to the certification and training service as well as other matters of interest. Following the report, a motion for acceptance, was made by Mr. Lee and seconded by Dr. Ganey, was carried.

Dr. Hall spoke of the progress being made by the National Research Council in their study of the deaf and problems of the hard of hearing, one group to use hearing aids in public school, and another group of the same characteristics, not to use them. This experiment probably would go on for a year and a half. He also mentioned the work of Dr. Fletcher of the Bell Telephone Laboratories being conducted in cooperation with the Clarke School. After concluding these remarks Dr. Hall called for the treasurer's report, which was submitted by Prof. Irving S. Fusfeld. The report was accepted as read, with the addition, that at the end of the fiscal year the regular audit of the annals be made by an official auditor.

Dr. Hall then spoke briefly on problems relating to the admittance of young men and women to Gallaudet College from the various schools, and asked for the cooperation of all the heads of the schools on these matters.

At the end of this discussion Dr. Settles inquired if the two training schools for colored teachers, the Hampton School in Virginia, and the West Virginia Institute for the Colored Deaf and Blind, had been certified. Dr. Bjorlee stated they had not. Dr. Settles then pointed out that both schools plan to conduct a summer school for colored teachers, and that he doubted the wisdom of having two schools conduct summer school. After some further discussion a motion was made by Dr. Settles to request the chairman of the executive committee to investigate the work that is being carried on by the West Virginia Institute, and also to find out what is being attempted at the Hampton School. The motion was seconded by Mr. Buchanan, and was ordered.

Dr. Hall then brought up the matter of the time and place of the next regular meeting of the conference. Invitations were received from Mr. Wright to meet in Texas and from Mr. Elstad to meet in Minnesota. These invitations were placed on record, a decision to be determined later.

Mr. Elstad, of Minnesota, then brought up the question as to whether the conference should go on record as to whether or not it favored the proposal of Mr. Harvey B. Barnes, of Illinois, concerning the establishment of a special vocational school for the training of deaf students. After some discussion Mr. Ingle suggested that since Mr. Barnes' paper on this subject would shortly be read that it would be better to wait until the members of the conference had heard the paper before taking any action. Dr. Hall stated that if there was no objection this would be done and that afterward, if possible, a short meeting would be held to express the opinion of the conference. A motion to this effect was made by Mr. Peterson, seconded by Mr. Driggs, and was ordered.

The meeting was recessed at 5:40 p. m.

REPORT OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF THE CONFERENCE

(Dr. IGNATIUS BJORLEE, superintendent, Maryland School, chairman)

Since the last regular triennial meeting of the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, held at Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C., October 1939, there have been no outstanding activities challenging the attention of the executive committee.

During the period, one member of the executive committee retired from the profession, Dr. Frank M. Driggs, of Ogden, Utah. The vacancy was filled by the appointment of Dr. Alfred L. Brown, of Colorado Springs. Much could be written concerning the activities of Dr. Driggs. Suffice it here to state that for more than 50 years he was actively engaged in the education of the deaf, and during the past quarter century he has been recognized as a leader in the profession, having served both the conference and the convention as president, and in numerous other ways made his influence felt at every gathering of the conference and the convention. We wish for him and Mrs. Driggs many years of health and happiness in their retirement.

During the period there have been an unusually large number of changes among the members of the conference. Briefly stated they are as follows:

Vacancies caused by death

Mississippi.....	R. S. Dobyns
New Jersey.....	Alvin E. Pope

Succeeded by—

John R. Bane
Charles M. Jochem

Vacancies caused by resignation

Arizona.....	Robert D. Morrow
Louisiana.....	L. R. Divine
Oklahoma.....	J. W. Blattner
Utah.....	Frank M. Driggs
Virginia (Hampton).....	Stahl Butler
New York, P. S. No. 47.....	D. Frances Kauffman

Succeeded by—

Edward W. Tillinghast
Spencer Phillips
John A. Gough
G. Oscar Russell
W. M. Whitehead
Harriet F. McLaughlin

Rumor has it that Dr. A. E. Krause has been asked to tender his resignation on, or before, July 5. Dr. Krause has served for 8 years as superintendent of the West Virginia School, and his administration has been marked with distinct progress and development, particularly in the building up of a splendid plant. The retirement of Dr. Krause

is due solely to a political change within the State, a situation which I believe all present deplore.

Of the above, may we also call attention to the fact that Dr. J. W. Blattner, formerly of the Oklahoma School, served for two triennial periods as president of the conference.

We would also call attention to the passing of Dr. James Coffee Harris, formerly superintendent of the Georgia School; W. A. Scott, formerly of the Mississippi School; and Parley DeBerry, formerly superintendent of the West Virginia School.

Census.—Among the activities of the conference, we would like to call attention to a meeting held at the office of the United States Bureau of Census, on December 19, 1939. Those present at the hearing were Dr. Percival Hall, Prof. Irving S. Fusfeld, and Dr. Ignatius Bjorlee. Representing the Census Department were Dr. Vergil D. Reed, Acting Director of the Bureau of Census; Dr. John Collinson, assistant chief statistician, Division of Vital Statistics, Bureau of Census; Mr. Oliver C. Short, Director of Census Personnel; Dr. Willis C. Beasley, psychologist, National Institute of Health; and Dr. Richard O. Lang, technical assistant, Division of Population, Bureau of Census.

It had been learned that the deaf would not be recorded in the census figures to be taken during the year 1940. The break in precedent was justified by the census director primarily on the grounds that the number of replies in the affirmative are relatively so few that the census takers have in the past become negligent with the result that the question has been ignored and figures inaccurate.

During the course of the interview it was learned that certain agencies associated with the hard of hearing and certain manufacturers of hearing aids had used their influence toward having this feature of the census eliminated.

As president of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, I had been in correspondence with the Director of Census on the subject and more than a year earlier the bone of contention seemed to be that nomenclature stood in the way of an accurate census taking covering the deaf. This would seem to have been the more valid reason and is one in which educators of the deaf must accept responsibility. Such glaring confusion as "grandpa cupping his ear" in order to hear more distinctly, being tabulated as deaf, while the mother of a bona fide deaf child would be confused in making reply because the term used was "deaf-mute" and the child having learned to speak could not be characterized as "mute." These and similar inconsistencies must be eradicated.

Several years ago definitions tending to clarify the situation by using both the term deaf and the term hard of hearing were adopted by the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf and subscribed to by practically all residential schools for the deaf. The definitions were so clear and comprehensive to the man on the street that is unfortunate all groups did not accept this terminology. To inject the theory that a person who could speak and read the lips should not be termed "deaf" would appear to be a fallacy. According to all recognized definitions, a person deprived of all usable hearing must be conceded to be deaf, while on the other hand a person who can hear either when spoken to at close range

in a loud tone of voice, or with the use of a hearing aid, should most logically be characterized as hard of hearing.

If these definitions had been adopted by the Bureau of Census, the statistics would have been much more accurate than was formerly the case.

The committee was, however, given the assurance that because a very exhaustive survey had recently been made covering hearing loss among all residents in a number of large cities throughout the United States, it was felt that these figures could be used as an indication of the number of deaf in proportion to the total population. It was further stated that consideration would be given to the advisability of incorporating such figures with the printed findings of the census, thereby enabling those interested in the subject of research to make a comparative study for the past decade along lines of previous census figures.

There seems to be at present time a concerted effort on the part of some to make the percentage of hearing loss larger than a practical study would deem justifiable. This, we feel, is a mistake. Why should we endeavor to impress upon an individual the fact that his hearing is slightly below normal when he would in all probability have gone through life scarcely conscious of the fact?

The blind were also exempt from the 1940 census and again the reason would seem to be a confusion in the use of terminology. We were told at the hearing that there are more blind people in the United States today receiving Government aid than there were blind people tabulated in the 1930 census. And this can probably be explained by another statement to the effect that according to the definition used by the Government agencies, "a man who cannot see without the aid of glasses is characterized as blind." Obviously the term is erroneous. Such person would logically be termed partially sighted.

It is strange how educators can continue to be at a loss to agree on definitions that could be understood by the rank and file. This is particularly true when we realize the incalculable harm which has come to the deaf as a result of the use of such now obsolete terms as "deaf and dumb" and "deaf mute."

Athletic committee.—At the Washington meeting of the conference in 1939 considerable attention was given to the setting up of certain standards governing interscholastic athletic tournaments, and the following committee was subsequently appointed to make a study of the situation and report their findings at this meeting of the convention. The committee selected was as follows: D. T. Cloud, Illinois; C. J. Settles, Florida; L. M. Elstad, Minnesota; E. B. Boatner, Connecticut; F. J. Neesam, Wisconsin; E. S. Foltz, Kansas; L. A. Palmer, Tennessee; G. W. Harlow, Pennsylvania.

Mr. Cloud, as chairman of the committee, has taken an active interest, as have a number of the other members, but the brunt of the work has fallen to Mr. G. W. Harlow, coach at the Mount Airy School, who has collected a mass of information and printed for distribution a set of suggested resolutions, and is prepared to place the entire matter before the convention. We trust that the superintendents may also give this matter the attention it justly merits.

Committee on hearing aids.—It is hoped that a committee, consisting of Mr. D. T. Cloud, Miss Josephine B. Timberlake, Mr. Leonard M.

Elstad, and Dr. Clarence D. O'Connor, together with the chairman of the executive committee of the conference, will continue a study of the very important problem of the use of hearing aids in the education of the deaf, and report their findings at the regular meeting of the conference next year.

The Annals.—May I strongly urge upon the superintendents present—and particularly the new members—the importance of giving their wholehearted support to the American Annals of the Deaf, a publication which, except for interruption during the Civil War, has appeared continuously over a period of more than 90 years, during which time it has been most ably edited, and it justly merits the wholehearted support of every school that is interested in modern developments and in the conserving of a very valuable historic record, covering the progress of the education of the deaf. The financial goal sought in support of the Annals is subscription for each school equal to 25 cents per capita of the student body, or approximately one copy for each teacher on the staff and a few additional copies for the library files and binding purposes. Most superintendents have been generous in their support and we trust that the few who for various reasons have been unable to conform may see their way clear to get in line at an early date.

Certification of training centers.—It is a pleasure to report steady progress in behalf of the committee on certification of teachers and training centers for teachers of the deaf. Practically all of the schools now training teachers have requested that their training centers be certified by the committee and it is felt that the certification plan is meeting with unanimous support from the standpoint of certifying training centers. From the Annals, January 1941, we quote the training centers and the number of trainees enrolled during the present year.

Teachers in training, 1940-41

	Men	Women		Men	Women
RESIDENTIAL SCHOOLS			DAY SCHOOLS—Continued		
Gallaudet College.....	5	2	Manhattan, No. 47.....		2
Maryland School.....		1	Everett, Wash.....		1
Clarke School.....	1	10			
Missouri School.....		3	Total.....	1	12
St. Mary's School.....	1	7	DENOMINATIONAL AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS		
Lexington School.....	2	11			
St. Joseph's School.....		2	Ephpheta, Ill.....		1
North Carolina School.....	1	3	Central Institute.....	6	29
Ohio School.....		6	DePaul School, Pittsburgh.....	3	3
Western Pennsylvania School.....	3	5			
Hampton, Va. (colored).....			Total.....	9	33
Total.....	14	53	Total trained, 1940-41 (122).....	24	98
DAY SCHOOLS					
Detroit.....		3			
Ypsilanti.....	1	6			

Summarizing the report since certification became effective in 1931, the following are totals of normal students trained annually:

1930-31.....	95	1937-38.....	113
1931-32.....	88	1938-39.....	158
1932-33.....	98	1939-40.....	147
1933-34.....	97	1940-41.....	122
1934-35.....	88		
1935-36.....	121	Total.....	1,225
1936-37.....	98		

Obviously there are still teachers entering the profession through channels other than those certified, the chief cause of this being economic. A number of schools have found it necessary from time to time to take local material into training as their budget was not sufficiently large to assure them of filling their requirements from the year's supply of regularly trained teachers.

It can be safely stated that as a direct result of the inauguration of the certification plan, the quality of teachers entering the profession has been very materially raised.

While we can announce no new training centers as certified during the period, we are glad to report that the committee has definitely arranged with Superintendent Morrison of the Ontario School to make the necessary survey of his training class early in the fall and Mr. T. C. Forrester, of Rochester, N. Y., has consented to make the survey in behalf of the committee.

Certification of teachers.—To date the number of teachers certified has reached a total of 1,165. We urge upon the superintendents a careful study of the program in the hope that more of the schools will, as time progresses, require of their teachers that they hold certificates under the conference. A number of States have made these requirements obligatory and have found in this regulation a wholesome stimulus toward bringing staff members up to the standard.

Another activity which we would like to call to your attention is that for the first time it is this year possible to report a training center that is giving attention to colored teachers of the deaf. This subject has been under discussion for a number of years and it was through the efforts of former Superintendent Stahl Butler, Hampton, Va., that the school inaugurated such a program. The school has this year trained three colored men and five colored women.

REPORT OF THE TREASURER AND EDITOR OF THE ANNALS

(IRVING S. FUSFELD, Washington, D. C.)

The American Annals of the Deaf, founded in 1847 and now in its eighty-sixth volume, serves dually as the official organ of the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf and the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf. As such it is an instrument of service, a medium for the expression of our professional thought, and the historical record and repository of information concerning methods, classroom practice, and school policy as pertain to the education of the deaf.

In this capacity the Annals merits the support of those engaged in our work, from those newly entering it and from those long in service. With this support the Annals can continue on its record of usefulness.

The Annals is published five times a year, bimonthly during the school year. Its present printing reaches a total of 1,700 copies, of which number something over 1,500 copies are spoken for by subscription. The great bulk of this subscription support is carried by

the schools for the deaf under an arrangement established by the conference. This arrangement provides for a quota support by which the schools pay 25 cents per pupil enrolled, and for each 8 pupils 1 copy of the *Annals* is sent. This thus assures the supporting schools a copy for practically each staff instructor. We are heartened by the fact that so many of the schools faithfully abide by the quota arrangement here described. But as the *Annals* is not maintained as a profit undertaking, and in view of the imminence of mounting costs of publication, it becomes increasingly necessary that schools not now giving full support join with us in keeping the *Annals* going.

The management of the *Annals* is in the care of the executive committee of the conference, to whom the editor and assistant editor are directly responsible. The editor also serves as treasurer of its funds as well as of the funds of the conference. At the close of each fiscal year the accounts are turned over for audit by a certified public accountant and a detailed report of receipts and expenditures rendered to the executive committee.

At the meeting of the conference in Washington, in October 1939, a report of our fiscal status was made covering the fiscal year ending June 30, 1939. This report was printed in the proceedings, *Annals*, March 1940, pages 197-200.

For the record here I should like to present a statement for the following year, ending June 30, 1940, and covered by the auditor's report.

WASHINGTON, D. C., July 2, 1940.

MR. IRVING S. FUSFELD,
Washington, D. C.

DEAR SIR: In accordance with your instructions I have audited the books and records of the American *Annals* of the Deaf for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1940, and the result of the audit is shown in the attached exhibits A and B.

The accounts have been correctly kept and all receipts have been deposited in bank and the disbursements therefrom have been made by checks with proper supporting vouchers on file.

I have checked the securities shown in schedule B, which are kept in a safe deposit box at the northeast branch of the American Security & Trust Co. and have verified the bank balance shown in exhibit A.

Respectfully submitted,

J. A. P. FARNHAM, Auditor.

EXHIBIT A.—*American Annals of the Deaf from July 1, 1939, to June 30, 1940*

RECEIPTS		
Balance, July 1, 1939.....		\$4,320.18
Subscriptions from schools.....	\$2,589.00	
Subscriptions from individuals.....	392.64	
Sale of single copies and back numbers.....	60.19	
Advertisements.....	51.00	
Interest on securities, etc.....	75.20	
Fees for certification.....	363.00	
Conference dues.....	310.00	
Redeposit, warrant held over.....	19.00	
		3,860.03
Total.....		8,180.21

EXPENDITURES

Printing and engraving.....	\$2,338.72	
Salary of editor.....	1,000.00	
Contributors' articles.....	112.00	
Clerical assistance.....	86.31	
Auditing and notary fees.....	28.00	
Stationery (stamped).....	89.99	
Miscellaneous (postage, telegrams, etc.).....	40.85	
Fee for safe deposit box.....	3.30	
Expenses, editor, Berkeley and Providence conventions....	102.88	
Conference:		
Certificates, blanks.....	\$35.48	
Certificates, lettered.....	37.80	
Certificates, editing.....	200.00	
Transcripts (college).....	2.50	
Refund, fees.....	15.00	
Expenses, conference speakers.....	66.70	
Stenotypist, report.....	193.75	
	551.23	
Total.....	4,353.28	
State warrants (Arizona) on hand.....	38.00	
Balance in bank, June 30, 1940.....	3,788.93	
		\$8,180.21

EXHIBIT B.—Assets—Schedule of securities as of June 30, 1940

	Par value	Cost
1 Puget Sound Power & Light Co., 5½-percent bond, series M19,981, due June 1, 1949.....	\$1,000.00	\$1,018.75
1 Washington Railway & Electric Co. 4-percent Consolidated Mortgage gold bond, No. 17,907.....	500.00	451.11
	1,500.00	1,469.86
Cash in bank, June 30, 1940.....		3,788.93
State warrants (Arizona) on hand.....		19.00
Subscriptions due and unpaid, June 30, 1940.....		480.80
Total.....		5,758.59

Accrued interest on securities shown above has been eliminated.

OFFICE EQUIPMENT AND SUPPLIES

This equipment consists of tables, chairs, one book cabinet, one old addressograph, one second-hand typewriter, one filing cabinet, two bound sets of the Annals from volume 1 to 64, inclusive, single copies of the Annals (approximately 16,000) from volume 1 to date; sundry office stationery and miscellaneous papers and books.

The single copies and bound volumes of the Annals are of considerable value, but it is difficult to estimate their cash value as of any particular date; therefore no attempt has been made to do so in this report.

The audit for the current fiscal year is soon due, and will be reported upon in the usual manner.²

WASHINGTON, D. C., July 23, 1941.

MR. IRVING S. FUSFELD,

Washington, D. C.

DEAR SIR: In accordance with your instructions I have audited the books and records of the American Annals of the Deaf for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1941, and the result of the audit is shown in the attached exhibits A and B.

² As ordered by vote of the conference, the report of the auditor for the year ending June 30, 1941, is here included in the treasurer's report as published.

The accounts have been correctly kept and all receipts have been deposited in bank and the disbursements therefrom have been made by checks with proper supporting vouchers on file.

I have checked the securities shown in schedule B, which are kept in a safe deposit box at the northeast branch of the American Security & Trust Co. and have verified the bank balance shown in exhibit A.

Respectfully submitted.

J. A. P. FARNHAM, Auditor.

EXHIBIT A.—*American Annals of the Deaf*, from July 1, 1940, to June 30, 1941

RECEIPTS		
Balance in bank, July 1, 1940.....		\$3, 788. 93
Subscriptions from schools.....	\$2, 413. 27	
Subscriptions from individuals.....	385. 78	
Sale of single copies and back numbers.....	38. 58	
Advertisements.....	88. 00	
Interest on securities, etc.....	75. 00	
Fees for certification.....	373. 81	
Conference dues.....	45. 00	
Redeposit check.....	2. 00	
State warrants (Arizona) on hand.....	19. 00	
		<u>3, 440. 44</u>
Total.....		7, 229. 37

EXPENDITURES		
Printing and engraving.....	2, 232. 03	
Salaries of editor and assistant editor.....	1, 200. 00	
Contributors' articles.....	122. 00	
Clerical assistance.....	76. 72	
Auditing and notary fees.....	28. 00	
Stationery (stamped).....	12. 66	
Miscellaneous (postage, telegrams, etc.).....	47. 95	
Fee for safe deposit box.....	3. 33	
Purchase back numbers.....	10. 00	
Expenses, editor to Fulton Convention.....	82. 27	
Checks returned.....	4. 00	
Conference:		
Certificates, blanks printed.....	\$45. 51	
Certificates, lettered.....	27. 30	
Refund.....	6. 32	
		<u>79. 13</u>
Total.....	3, 898. 09	
State warrants on hand.....	69. 00	
Balance in bank, June 30, 1941.....	3, 262. 28	
		<u>7, 229. 37</u>

EXHIBIT B.—*Assets—Schedule of securities as of June 30, 1941*

	Par value	Cost
1 Puget Sound Power & Light Co. 5½-percent bond, series M19981, due June 1, 1949.....	\$1, 000. 00	\$1, 018. 75
1 Washington Railway & Electric Co. 4-percent Consolidated Mortgage Gold Bond, No. 17907.....	500. 00	451. 11
	1, 500. 00	1, 469. 86
Cash in bank, June 30, 1941.....		3, 262. 28
State warrants (Arizona) on hand.....		69. 00
Subscriptions due and unpaid, June 30, 1941.....		486. 60
Total.....		<u>5, 287. 74</u>

Accrued interest on securities shown above has been eliminated.

OFFICE EQUIPMENT AND SUPPLIES

This equipment consists of tables, chairs, one book cabinet, one old addressograph, one second-hand typewriter, one filing cabinet, two bound sets of the *Annals* from volume 1 to 64, inclusive, single copies of the *Annals* (approximately 28,700) from volume 1 to date; sundry office stationery and miscellaneous papers and books.

The single copies and bound volumes of the *Annals* are of considerable value, but it is difficult to estimate their cash value as of any particular date; therefore no attempt has been made to do so in this report.

As indicated by the summaries just read, the income of the *Annals* and conference funds is derived from quota subscription support by the schools, individual subscriptions, sale of single copies of back numbers, advertisements, interest from securities, fees for certification and conference membership dues. The expenses incurred are those for printing and engraving, salary and traveling expenses of the editor, payment for articles appearing in the *Annals*, clerical assistance, the preparation and issuing of teachers' certificates, expenses of conference committees, and miscellaneous items covering stationery, postage, et cetera.

In addition to arranging for the publication of the *Annals*, the editorial office also receives all applications for teacher certification, makes detailed investigation in each case and also in each case submits a report to the chairman of the conference committee on certification. A return report from that chairman either determines the grade of certificate finally issued, or outlines the reasons why an application cannot be approved. The names of all applicants are printed in the *Annals*. As of this date, a total of 1,165 requests for certificates by teachers in our schools for the deaf have been formally received and acted upon.

To date also, according to the roll call read by the secretary of the conference at the beginning of this meeting, a total of 71 schools maintain official membership in the conference. The membership fees, \$5 for each triennial period, are forwarded to the office of the treasurer. The treasurer would point out that this number represents a very large proportion of the 91 schools eligible for membership.

By vote of the conference at Washington, the editor of the *Annals* was authorized to have reprinted a pamphlet containing the addresses at that meeting on the topic of *The Adult Deaf at Work*. This was done, copies being sent to all schools for the deaf and distributed among libraries throughout the country. A similar distribution has been made of an offprint of an article in the *Annals* by Mr. Tobias Brill on *A Bibliography of Literature on the Education of the Deaf*. The treasurer commends this policy as well worth the cost.

The editor wishes to acknowledge gratefully the aid provided for in the appointment of an assistant editor.

MEETING OF THE COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF THE DEAF AND THE
HARD OF HEARING IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Presiding: Miss Jennie M. Henderson, principal of the Horace Mann School, Roxbury, Mass.

Miss Henderson opened the meeting by asking for the names of the teachers present and asking them to tell in what school they were teach-

ing. Due to the fact that day schools were still in session, the group of teachers was small. The following made informal reports: Mrs. E. C. Evans, Iowa visitor; Mrs. Myrtle L. Henderson, who has taught in day schools but is now in the Council Bluffs School; Miss Hazel W. Walker, Spalding School, Chicago; Miss Elizabeth Dunlap, Rochester, N. Y.; Miss Esther D. Krallman, Lincoln, Nebr.; Ethlwyn Hammond, Kansas City Day School; and Cyril B. Sherwood, Rockford, Ill.

Miss Henderson then asked how many pupils each teacher had in her class and the type of work being done. Miss Walker, of the Spalding School, reported that her work is done with the higher children, those who have difficulty in getting along in their public high schools and drift into her class. Her class has only been organized about 3 or 4 years and is rapidly growing, in spite of the fact that there are two other high schools in Chicago, one for both boys and girls and one for girls only. She explained the type of work done by their coaching teachers, and each teacher told of their supervision.

Miss Dunlap, of the Rochester School, reported that they have in their school a lip-reading and speech teacher, but that the School for the Deaf takes care of the more severe cases. This high school has been a part of the School for the Deaf for about 10 years. They have been doing audiometer testing with all public-school children for many years. The lip-reading teacher goes from school to school giving help where she finds it necessary, and makes arrangements for those with a severe loss to attend the class, where they will receive more individual attention.

Miss Henderson told the group that Boston has three lip-reading teachers, under the able direction of Miss Mabel E. Dunn. Boston also has a special department for speech defects. Miss Walker explained that her program is very flexible and that while individual work is very, very important, social adjustment is also to be considered and that group association should play an important part.

The group then discussed the industrial opportunities of the day school, and all agreed that their group falls far below the residential school in this field. Miss Walker told of a vocational school in Chicago that is open 12 months in the year for the child who is not high-school material. The splendid cooperation afforded by vocational rehabilitation was mentioned by several present. Many employers hesitate to employ deaf boys and girls, fearing the latter will be injured while on the job. Girls, because of the less active trades they pursue, do not experience as much difficulty as boys, was the general opinion of the meeting.

Transportation was discussed and most of the teachers reported that their boys and girls are transported by bus, but one teacher told that her school furnishes taxis, and another that they pay the parents or older pupils to act as escort for the younger pupils. One teacher remarked that she sometimes feels that the school assumes too much of the responsibility in this matter and does not place enough on the parents of the children.

All teachers present felt that the hearing aid has done a great deal to bridge the vast chasm between the hearing child and the deaf child. Since the initiation of the hearing aid, the deaf child is treated very much the same as his hearing brother. Whereupon the meeting was adjourned.

GENERAL SESSION, TUESDAY EVENING

(Auditorium, Advanced School Building, 8 p. m.)

Presiding: Victor O. Skyberg, superintendent, New York School.

Violin solo: Mrs. Elmer Henderson, Jr., accompanied by Mrs. Cleo H. Statlon.

Address: The Place of Language in Mental Development, Dr. Theo. W. H. Irion, dean, School of Education, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.

Paper and demonstration: A Leisure-Time Activity, Dr. A. L. Brown, superintendent, Colorado School.

The Tuesday evening general session convened at 8 p. m., June 24, 1941, Mr. Victor O. Skyberg, superintendent of the New York School, presiding.

Mr. SKYBERG. The convention will please come to order. We will be favored first by a violin solo by Mrs. Elmer Henderson, Jr., accompanied by Mrs. Cleo H. Statlon.

(Violin solo.)

Mr. SKYBERG. That was the language of music. Thank you, Mrs. Henderson and Mrs. Statlon.

The basic problem, as we all know, in our professional work is that of language, and our greatest worry, as we all know, is that of mental development. We are fortunate this evening in having that problem and worry discussed by Dr. Theophil W. H. Irion, dean of the School of Education, University of Missouri. I present Dr. Irion to speak to you now.

THE PLACE OF LANGUAGE IN MENTAL DEVELOPMENT

(DR. THEO. W. H. IRION, dean, School of Education, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.)

It occurs to me that it is very appropriate indeed, in these times of stress and strain, that you should meet here at this place to discuss ways and means of reconstructing human life so that people who are bereft in any way of talents or physical powers may yet be converted into active and usable citizens. In this hour when America needs to make the best use of all of her resources and to conserve these resources as much as possible, we must also think of the blind and the deaf, the halt and the maimed, as valuable human resources. Not like some ruthless governments which would gladly see these people destroyed we here in America, putting our emphasis upon the value of individual lives, want to restore these people to society, and to the best possible place in society, so that they may make their life contributions. This is all done in true American fashion, and in the spirit of our great American faith.

What I shall have to say today may not be particularly enlightening, and you may not see in it any practical advantage, but I do think it will be an inspiration to get a larger vision of the work in which you are engaged and to realize that your work is of far-reaching consequence in the development of human life. It is not merely a matter of giving people a few little tricks and devices with which they can help themselves in making their purchases and in making known their few little simple wants of each day.

Often, in the past, we have thought of the human being as being possessed of a mind which, if it could find proper media of stimulation,

would develop the human language within the individual. It evidently did not occur to us that the development of human language is, itself, the development of the human mind. It is this theme which I want to pursue with you this evening for a few minutes. For if we grasp what this means and reflect for a moment on what it implies in the lives of the deaf to have developed in them some form of language, we can see that what we are actually doing is not merely giving people a language, but we are, in fact, building their mentality.

As we build up the mentality of people, the world becomes more meaningful to them. The educated person differs from the uneducated person in that to him all of his surroundings speak of significance and of meaning. The plant and animal life, as well as the human life about him, is significant and meaningful. The artifacts of man's creation are understood by him and are meaningful to him. The forces of nature are understood by him and have significance for him. Everywhere meanings occur.

Now, the psychology of meaning is a rather complicated one, and I do not want to present it to you in technical form. In a rather nontechnical way, I might say that a thing has meaning for you insofar as you identify it with your life and incorporate it in significant activity. In other words, a thing means to you what you have done with it and how it has reacted upon you, how you have used it in achieving certain purposes or objectives and how it has served in this process.

That lesson came to me years ago when I stepped into a hardware store and hurriedly called for a few cents worth of carpet tacks. It was near the closing hour of the day and only one clerk was left in the store. There I stood for what seemed to me an interminable time (which was probably only 5 or 10 minutes), while the clerk was explaining to a customer the nature of two or three different hammers. After the customer had left, I remarked that he must be an old maid to make such a fuss over a hammer. The clerk gave me a look of surprise, and then his expression turned to disgust as he said, "Well, that man understands hammers." He then told me that this man was a carpenter who did a lot of roofing of houses, and that a hammer had to have a certain weight and a certain balance before it could be effectively used, and that there was a world of difference in hammers. He said, "Of course, if you were to buy a hammer, you would ask, 'How much does this one cost?' and 'How much does that one cost?' and you would buy the cheaper one."

And then I reflected upon what, for example, a fountain pen means to me. If I went to buy a fountain pen, I would want a good one and probably would be as hard to please as the carpenter was in purchasing the hammer. Even more so would this be true if I were purchasing books. Why? Because books and fountain pens mean something to me. I have used them in various things that I have done all my adult life. I have identified myself with these articles, and the articles with myself, in processes which were meaningful to me. It is the processes, the achieving, the doing of things which are meaningful, that engender meanings. Insofar as articles fit into the doing of things, they achieve meaning.

I presume that if I had always seen people sit on the edge of a table, putting their food on the seats of chairs, and stooping down to pick

up a piece of bread or meat from the chair to eat it—I say, if I had seen people do that all of my life and if I, myself, had engaged in that process, I presume the chair would mean to me some article of furniture upon which you place food, and a table would mean to me an article of furniture on which to sit. And so we might continue, although I think it would be a waste of good time to go on further, to show how a thing has meaning insofar as you have used that thing in some process, some activity. Insofar as things have been helpful or harmful in processes or activities do they gain significance.

Now, it is very difficult to use these meanings except in concrete situations, so long as the meanings are directly connected with and related only to the “object-situations” themselves. But we soon learn to let a symbol or a sign stand for the object. Take, for example, the common nouns: Book, chair, pen, hammer—all of these are signs which we substitute for the actual article. I can get the feeling of the meaning of hammer without seeing a hammer about me, by just using the symbol, the sign, the word hammer. Very soon I develop also symbols or signs for relationships between objects, and also for activities and experiences. All of these signs and symbols I call words—words that are expressive of meaning of things—words that are significant of the relationships that exist between things. And when I have all of these symbols established, I do not actually have to experience and reexperience certain events in order to be aware of their meanings. All I need to do is to have the symbols or the signs brought again before me, and I can develop meaningful reactions to them. And so, at once, it becomes apparent that language is necessary if I am going to develop a mentality which gets away from mere concrete objects and concrete experiences and shift to experiences which I can contemplate.

When I have arrived at this point in my language development, I have achieved more than just the acquiring of the few little sentences; in other words, I have acquired a tool which is not only valuable as an expression of my thoughts and ideas, but which will also help in the development of my thoughts and ideas; it eventuates in the development of my mentality.

Very soon I can go even beyond concrete experiences; soon I shall be able to take from a host of individual experiences certain qualities or relationships which never exist just in and of themselves, but always as a part of a larger experience. By giving these qualities or relationships a symbol or a sign, I can, after a while, treat them and treat of them as though they were independently existing entities.

For example, you do not find a piece of whiteness around anywhere; what you see is a white cloth, a white paper, a white cloud, or a white wall, or a white flower or some thing that is white. And yet, after having experienced whiteness in a great many concrete connections, I can speak of it as though it were a thing in itself. I can speak, then, of whiteness; I have, as it were, created an abstraction.

Also, I can observe human conduct and human behavior, and after I have seen certain qualities of human behavior in many different circumstances, I can finally act as though these qualities of behavior were things in and of themselves. So I can speak of justice, and of goodness, and of kindness, and of mercy and of truth as though these characteristics were just independently existing entities, though as a matter

of fact, they always refer to certain qualities of human behavior. You can readily see that once you get to the point where you have created symbols for these qualities, you can draw them out of their concrete connections; you thus develop abstractions.

The higher type of mentality deals very largely with abstractions. That type of mentality would be utterly impossible if it were not for some type of sign or symbol which becomes the embodiment of the abstraction. Of course, all development of abstract ideas and concepts, of theories and hypotheses, is dependent upon the building up of symbols and signs, or to put it very plainly, it is dependent upon the development of some form of language.

Now, after I have developed language to a point where I can become highly conscious of certain facts and concepts and abstractions and relationships, it becomes possible for me to put them together in various forms and react to these meaningful symbolic forms by way of creating new experiences, the experiences of insight. The process of doing that we call the process of thinking and of reasoning. It is simply another form of experiencing on the sign, or symbolic, or language level. To be sure, finally when we get through with the process, we should always and usually do want to check back upon realities and re-create what we have thought through, in a real situation, with real objects, persons and events, in order to verify what we have been concluding on the basis of our thought operations and processes. Thus the whole process of thinking and reasoning, as you and I know it, is dependent upon the development of a language. Mentality, as it is known to us, is dependent upon these thinking and reasoning processes, which in turn are dependent upon this form of sign experience. In other words, mentality is dependent upon the development of language.

Thinking, however, does wonderful things to the human being. For example, the human being can react to a situation before it actually occurs. I am told, for example, that I am to deliver an address before this group. That request comes to me in 1940. The actual situation does not occur before me; I do not find myself suddenly in Fulton, confronted by an audience. I have been requested to speak here, and I can create, mentally as it were, in the form of signs and symbols, the situation to which I shall have to respond, and therefore I can make preparation in advance for the situation in which I now and ultimately find myself.

On the basis of this symbolism and sign experience, on the basis of this thinking, I can also predict what situation may confront me and what I may have to do in order to meet the situation adequately. I might be told, for example, that I shall have to speak to the inmates of the State penitentiary. Now, being told that is merely being confronted by a language, a sign, a symbolic situation. But I can translate that symbolism into meanings, and I can therefore predict the nature of the situation with which I shall finally be confronted. I know approximately the number who will be in the audience; I know a penitentiary houses convicts, and I know what convict means and what kind of individual is usually involved in crime. I can predict that the situation will demand certain things of me, and I can make adequate preparation in advance to meet this predicted situation.

If, on the other hand, I am asked to speak before a Shakespeare Society, I would not make the error of thinking of these people as being convicts, whatever I may think of them, and I would not make my preparation in the same way. I, again, would resort to the processes of using meanings in order to predict what the situation will be and to plan to meet that situation.

All of that I can do on the basis of symbols—signs—language, which, of course, are significant only if there are certain recognized meanings for which these words or these symbols and signs stand.

Not only can I predict and make preparation in advance, but I can actually solve problems because of these symbolic situations. The fact of the matter is, if I know that on such and such a day I shall have to do this, that, or the other thing, I can throw the whole thing on a thought level and think it through; I can discover where the problems are and can meet them in advance. Next week, I am to speak in a hotel in one of our fine cities in this State. I can meet this situation in advance by throwing it into the form of problems. How far is this city from my place of residence? How shall I travel to get there? When do I have to leave my office? What kind of group will be there? What are its interests? What is its level of mental ability? What are the purposes for which it is meeting? These are all problems which I can analyze and bring down to a point where I may arrive at certain conclusions. Then I can prepare in advance to react to the situation as analyzed out.

You will admit that that gives me a great advantage. The best explanation you can give of such a pattern of processes is to say that it is a way of meeting a situation intelligently, planning for it, thinking it through, being ready for it.

But when you take all of the things which I have suggested: The matter of being able to react to things and situations as though they were present when they are not at all present to the senses; the ability to abstract qualities and relationships from actual situations and treat them as though they were separate entities; the ability to take ideas, feelings of relationship, abstractions, and concepts, and put them together in new form, reacting to these new forms and combinations—that is, the processes of thinking and reasoning; the process of meeting situations in advance, the process of predicting, the process of problem solving—all of these processes which language or sign experiencing or symbol experiencing makes possible—these are the very things which we speak of as human intellect or human mentality. And as you and I interpret human mentality and as we meet it in this world, it is based in a large measure upon language development.

To come back from our ventures into psychology, let us consider your work. Here you are, confronted with a group of young people and children who have, by accident of nature, been bereft of one of their senses. It happens to be the sense which takes away from them that special type of symbolism, that sign experience which is most common among human beings as a form of mental activity, the sign experience which is based upon the sensing of sound and the process of vocalization. Therefore, as these people come to you, they come to you mentally very undeveloped. I think you will agree with me that the mental development of the blind is apt to be far in advance of the mental development of the deaf before training. This is due to

the fact that the blind can develop auditory and vocal symbolisms and signs and can therefore proceed with a mental development which is not at all possible with a deaf person. The deaf person may create some sign system other than vocalization and sound, that is, language symbolism. Such sign experiences as that are usually not very effective. They are too crude. It is difficult to make the fine thought discriminations with them which can be made in language symbols or signs.

Yours, then, is the task of taking these people who, in many ways, may appear to be dull, and by slow and tedious processes finally develop in them the sign and symbol experience. And in creating that symbol experience, you are opening up mental possibilities. As you continue the training, you are actually developing mentality, mental power, mental ability, until finally you create a human being who can hold his own in many, possibly in most, situations.

I had the experience, a few year ago, of conferring with some of the deaf teachers of the deaf of this very institution here in Fulton. They wanted to come into my summer session at the university. I rather felt that that would be time wasted, and that since we were not organized for that kind of work, they would probably not get much out of the class work; they might even fail. I feared that we might be bothered and troubled with them. But they made such a favorable impression upon me in my first interview with them that I quite liked them and wanted to be helpful to them, and so I permitted them to enroll in our courses. They asked no favors and they were granted none. But the records which they made were so remarkable and so astounding, their grades were so high, that I felt thoroughly ashamed of myself after their work had been completed. When I realized that these were people of brilliance, power, and high mental gifts, I said to myself, "What would have happened to that mentality if it had not had its opportunity for growth and development through some form of language symbolism?" There is your great task; it is not only to conserve, but to develop and make the best use of the mental resources of these people who are deprived of the sense of hearing. What a great thing it is to restore just one of these to a fairly normal life, and what an infinitely greater thing it is to work with many of them day after day and to bring scores of them into ways of useful living.

You will recall that at the outset I commented on the fact that the meaning of situations and events depends, after all, upon experiencing these things. That being the case, I must call attention to two more things.

The first thought is one which has already been adequately emphasized, namely, that the child who comes to you totally deaf is not only lacking in language but he is also lacking in those experiences through which he develops a high degree of mentality.

The second thought which I wish to bring to you is this, that your task is not only that of developing a language; it is that of creating proper and useful experiences for these people. A school for the deaf must not only be a place where you meet in classrooms and try to develop an understanding of a few symbols, nouns, and verbs; it must be a place where people have a chance to do something with their hands—to experience certain things which have creative significance, and to develop language in connection with these experiences. It be-

comes an institution where people must not only meet in classrooms to be instructed by teachers, but where they also have certain occupational and social experiences, so that they may begin to understand human beings, with all of their qualities of kindness and also of ruthlessness; that they may learn the way of human cooperation as well as human rivalry. These experiences are all necessary to develop the practical mentality of human beings. In other words, your task is really much larger than that which the outside world usually perceives. Your institutional plant and set-up must be such as to induct your pupils into intelligent ways of living. Your task is to develop normal human experiences under the best obtainable conditions for these people. For this you need equipment and facilities for such education. Bare classrooms are not enough. Along with this experiencing it becomes necessary that you develop situations which will translate the experiences into symbolic form, in order that they, the learners, may use them in a facile and easy way as concrete experiences, objects, and things cannot be used. It is only in that way that you can develop the mentality of these people and bring them a little nearer to the maximum development of their human capacities. It is only in that way that you can discharge the full responsibility and duty of society to these people and awaken them to worlds undreamed of before—worlds which will make not only for usefulness but also for happiness, and which will make out of them a little more nearly what was intended to be their rightful heritage as human beings on this earth.

Mr. SKYBERG. We have had a splendid presentation, a picture of mental development and language development as we have experienced it ourselves in our schools. We are all too familiar with the daily grind of the procedures we must apply to get into this abstract area where we ought to be.

Now, we continue our program this evening with a demonstration, A Leisure-Time Activity, presented by Dr. A. L. Brown, superintendent of the Colorado School. I don't know what the demonstration will be, but I am sure it will be delightful.

A LEISURE-TIME ACTIVITY

(Dr. A. L. Brown, superintendent, Colorado School)

[Both during and after Dr. Brown's talk a group of pupils from the Colorado School, in appropriate colorful costume, gave a remarkable demonstration of square dancing, with Dr. Brown himself as "caller." The audience that filled the assembly hall enjoyed the performance immensely.]

When we were given a place on the program of this convention, we were very glad to bring one set of our dancers to demonstrate the old-time western and cowboy square dances as they are done at the Colorado School.

We know that the executive of each school for the deaf is always on the lookout for some activity that will help keep up the general morale of his student body, and at the same time contribute to the pleasure and entertainment of the girls and boys in the school. We are sure also that every school has its own particular types of activities which are calculated to do this very thing, and by comparing notes, all of us could be benefited.

A person who can read the signs aright can detect any approaching tenseness in the student body and often he can clear the atmos-

phere and put his youngsters back into a happy frame of mind by surprising them with a picnic, a party, or a trip to some unexpected place.

There are activities too that are calculated to take up the slack at times when the pupils have nothing in particular to do.

The old saying that "An idle brain is the devil's workshop" still holds good. If you doubt this statement, just leave your pupils to their own devices on the nights before they go home for their vacations at Christmas and in June or on evenings when there is no regular school program to keep them busy.

One of the most beneficial leisure-time activities we have introduced into our school in the last few years is the old-fashioned square or cowboy dances. There has been a tremendous revival of these dances in Colorado, and they are rapidly spreading to other States and that is why we are getting in on the ground floor.

All normally minded boys and girls like to get together and when they come to these dances, they mingle in a normal natural way.

The action which is required in doing these dances soon dispels any shyness which a pupil might have.

This is a good, wholesome activity and when a pupil is taking part he cannot think much about anything except the figure which he is trying to execute.

I am sure it has been the experience of many of us that we have gone to the regular school parties (and we should still have them) and have seen some of the older pupils who were not among the brightest hanging back and not participating in the parlor games which were a little too complicated for them, while the others were having a fine time.

You may take these same pupils and put them on a square-dance floor and they will soon be following the calls as well as anyone else. This is a pleasure in which the fortunate and less fortunate can meet on practically an even basis. One type can use its head well while both types may be able to use their bodies well. The stiffness, which is sometimes noticeable at a more formal sort of party, soon disappears when one joins in on these informal old-fashioned dances.

One valuable feature of this form of leisure activity is the interest it arouses in adults as well as young people. Its appeal extends all the way down the line to the very youngest boys and girls, bringing about a cordial community contact which knits together the varied groups characteristic of all institutions. This allied social relationship works to the good of all concerned and often promotes, indirectly, a more understanding approach to the problems of disciplinary administration in and outside the schoolroom.

It is interesting to see how our little folks aspire to take part in the simplest forms of old-fashioned square dancing which are, as a matter of fact, merely the introduction to other types of folk dancing.

It is the ambition of every school, in giving its pupils an education, to enable them to fit into the industrial and social life of the community from which they come. In Colorado, square dances are the outstanding social events of many of the communities from which our pupils come. They are popular also in the larger cities.

Through this activity, we believe we make it possible for many of our pupils to take part in social affairs along with the other members

of their families when they might not be able to do it in any other way. As one rather prominent mother put it, "It just does something to the children."

We started square dancing about 3 years ago as an experiment. We are convinced now that it is a worth-while activity for any school.

Mr. SKYBERG. That concludes the evening's program. I wish again to thank those who took part in it, for it has been both instructive and entertaining. We will now adjourn until tomorrow morning.

Whereupon the convention adjourned at 9:55 p. m.

WEDNESDAY, JUNE 25, 1941

DEMONSTRATIONS, 9-9:50 A. M.

Arithmetic: Primary Arithmetic, Mary Bach, Florida School; Advanced Arithmetic, Bessie L. Pugh, Florida School.

Art: Marionettes, Lois T. Kelly, Missouri School.

Auricular Training: Mrs. Harvey B. Barnes, Illinois School.

Language: Second Step in Teaching Direct and Indirect Discourse, Enfield Joiner, St. Mary's School; Straight Language, M. Adelaide Coffey, West Virginia School; Language, Lalla Wilson, Florida School.

Preschool and Kindergarten: Margaret Scyster, Illinois School.

Reading: Primary Reading, Mary F. Pearce, Missouri School.

Rhythm: Honora Carroll and Virginia Hammon, Gallaudet School, St. Louis, Mo.

Speech: Josephine Avondino, A. G. Bell School, Chicago, Ill.

Visual Education: Use of Visual Aids in Primary Grades, Thelma Hale, Kansas School.

SECTION MEETINGS, 10-10:50 A. M.

SUPERVISION

Presiding: Harry L. Welty, principal, Nebraska School.

Paper: Turns With a Supervising Teacher, Mary Grey Barron, supervising teacher, American School, West Hartford, Conn.

Paper: The Supervising Teacher as Director of Intracurricular Activities, Anna V. Craig, supervising teacher, Iowa School.

Paper: The Prerequisites for a Deaf Reader, Mary S. Standley, Illinois School.

PRESCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN

Presiding: Faye C. Allen, W. Roby Allen School, Faribault, Minn.

Paper: The Preschool Program at St. Joseph's Sister Anne Bernadine, St. Joseph's Institute, University City, Mo.

Paper: Ideas From Public Schools Adaptable to Schools for the Deaf, Laura Tittsworth, Gough School, San Francisco, Calif.

Discussion.

SPEECH DEVELOPMENT

Leader: Jennie M. Henderson, principal, Horace Mann School, Roxbury, Mass.

Paper and film: Research Work and Experiments in Speech as Conducted in the Speech and Hearing Clinic of Ohio State University, Dr. Marie K. Mason, Ohio State University.

AURICULAR TRAINING AND RHYTHM

Leader: Marshall S. Hester, supervising teacher, advanced department, California School.

Panel discussion: Construction, Care, and Servicing Hearing Aids, Dr. A. L. Brown, president, Colorado School; A. G. Norris, supervising teacher, vocational department, Missouri School; V. Becker, principal, Wisconsin School; J. H. Galloway, principal, Louisiana School.

CURRICULUM CONTENT

Leader: Roy G. Parks, principal, Georgia School.

Paper: What Its Curriculum Means to a School, Enfield Joiner, supervising, teacher training, St. Mary's School, Buffalo, N. Y.

Paper: Straight Language in the Primary Department, Marie S. Kennard, supervising teacher, primary department, Georgia School.

Paper: Language, Mary E. Numbers, in charge, middle school, Clarke School, Northampton, Mass.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Leader: Dr. Tom L. Anderson, principal, vocational department, Iowa School; chairman, Arthur G. Norris, supervising, vocational department, Missouri School.

Panel discussion: Should We Do Anything Concerning Teacher Training? Same panel members as on Tuesday.

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Leader: George W. Harlow, Pennsylvania School.

Paper: The Contributions of Interscholastic Athletics as Compared With Their Costs, Jacob Caskey, Indiana School.

Paper: A Survey of Athletic Associations in Southern Schools for the Deaf, Jess M. Smith, Jr., Tennessee School.

SOCIAL AND CHARACTER TRAINING

Presiding: Sam B. Craig, principal, Kendall School, Washington, D. C.

Paper: What of the Products? Alan B. Crammatte and Max Friedman, New York School.

ART

Leader: Geneva B. Llewellyn, Wisconsin School.

Paper and demonstration: Marionettes, Lois T. Kelly, Missouri School.

Paper: Picture Study, Margaret E. Fitzpatrick, Indiana School.

SECTION FOR DEAF TEACHERS

Leader: G. C. Farquhar, Missouri School.

Paper: Professional Preparation and Advancement of Deaf Teachers, Irving S. Fustfeld, dean, Gallaudet College.

Paper: Professional Advancement of Deaf Teachers Attending Universities, Frederick A. Moore, Ohio State School.

GENERAL SESSION, WEDNESDAY MORNING, JUNE 25

Auditorium, Advanced School Building, 11 a. m.

Presiding: J. Lyman Steed, superintendent, Oregon School.

Address: Mental Hygiene and the Teacher, Dr. Park J. White, professor of clinical pediatrics, Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.

Address: The Challenge to Leadership, Dr. Tom L. Anderson, president of the National Association of the Deaf.

GENERAL SESSION, WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, JUNE 25

Auditorium, Advanced School Building, 2 p. m.

Presiding: W. Laurens Walker, superintendent, South Carolina School.

Address: Testing the Young Deaf Child, Dr. Marshall S. Hiskey, department of educational psychology and measurements, University of Nebraska.

Address: The Importance of Personality in Everyday Living, Dr. Elizabeth Peet, dean of women, Gallaudet College.

Address: Character and Moral Training of the Deaf, Rev. Robert C. Fletcher, Episcopal missionary to the deaf, Birmingham, Ala.

GENERAL SESSION, WEDNESDAY NIGHT, JUNE 25

Athletic Field, Missouri School, 8:15 p. m.

Presiding: Madison J. Lee, superintendent, Kentucky School for the Deaf.
Specialty.

Address: A Pattern of Education for the World Today, Dr. Ralph H. Woods,
State director of vocational education, Kentucky.

SECTION MEETINGS, 10—10:50 A. M.

SUPERVISION

Presiding: Harry L. Welty, principal, Nebraska School.

Paper: Turns with a Supervising Teacher, Mary Grey Barron, supervising teacher, American School, West Hartford, Conn.

Paper: The Supervising Teacher as Director of Intracurricular Activities, Anna V. Craig, supervising teacher, Iowa School.

Paper: The Prerequisites for a Deaf Reader, Mary S. Standley, Illinois School.

TURNS WITH A SUPERVISING TEACHER

(MARY GREY BARRON, supervising teacher, American School, West Hartford, Conn.)

That there are problems of a supervising teacher none of us will deny, that the supervising teacher herself may be one of them, some of us may suspect—but that her range of problems is wide all of us know. The walls of the classroom push back for her, to take in all phases of school life. Her calendar day exceeds any that Julian ever devised, and her temperament must be capable of making and receiving a wide diversity of attack. Her activities encompass a range blending from such as were exercised by Simon Legree to those of Dorothy Dix.

Ten minutes can offer little in presentation, nothing in solution, of any matter. The "turns" here offered are given with apology to the Herald Tribune's Bookworm, and in hope that later discussion may bring from you the help our problems need.

The topic of this convention is Moulding Educational Opportunities (for the Deaf) for the World of Tomorrow with the Tools of Today. Moulding opportunities—the world of tomorrow—the tools of today—these are phrases that challenge our thought. Opportunity has always knocked at the door of American youth, the knock is not always heard, nor answered when heard. We like to believe though, that it will continue to knock and more often will be answered by those prepared to make the best use of its call, even in a world whose tomorrow we can scarcely envision.

What of the tools? Are we the tools, and if so, what should be expected of us? Strength and precision, trained for its objective, come first of all. The classroom is our workshop created as a background to further our end. Here we work toward our goal. One teacher arranges a room of multitudinous stimulation—pictures, charts, toys, endless objects to arrest the eye of the child. May we wonder if it is only arrested, with no future desire than to look idly, after the first newness has passed? Another teacher arranges a room of such bareness as to make a high degree of order with little stimulus to the

imagination. Where is the happy mean? What can we do to avoid clutter while striving for ample encouragement to investigation?

We believe that education comes above all things, for that language is our great medium. Our children must live in a language atmosphere mostly written. Pictures as such have problematic value until language is fluent, words must accompany everything. A bulletin board in this room has had the same things on it for months, does any child look at it or even toward it any more? Attention is caught and held by the novel not by the old and time worn. In one room words are taught at random in that by planned effort with intention to offer more rather than less than can be mastered. One teacher does not offer new language until the class comprehends the old, no wonder attention wanders in her class.

The title of a recent book appeals to me as offering a slogan for classroom atmosphere, *Cheerfulness Breaks In*. Cheer is certainly a prime requisite for life everywhere. One need not be constantly agrin, but a cheery disposition helps one "take it," both in disappointment and in hardship. We can expect our training centers to eliminate the temperamentally unfit before they reach the classroom door, though one does sometimes slip by. Cheeriness should be counted as a great asset to good teaching. The teacher is somewhat of a salesman whose task calls not only for thorough knowledge but also for enthusiasm for the thing he wishes to sell. We cannot sell educational opportunities unless we believe in them, in our prospects, and most of all in our own ability to do the selling. We must make our pupils realize that what we wish them to accomplish is worth the effort they must put into that accomplishment. A cheerful refusal to be daunted by difficulty takes one a long way.

The supervising teacher demands for her teachers courtesy, confidence, constructive (and no other) criticism, professional guidance, personal consideration, and support in authority. She should also desire that the school walls fall if necessary in order that the teacher may make for herself a life outside the school. No teacher whose interests are bound up inside her classroom makes a good tool, nor can she develop the best in her pupils. Here is one who complains bitterly and has even scolded unwisely the child whose work has deteriorated lately, not knowing he is undergoing the strain of trouble in his home. Another misses fine chances for contact and leadership because he does not follow the interests his pupils are developing in outside activities. Once installed in a classroom, the teacher should not feel that he must remain there. What we do with our leisure is the school's concern only so far as to hope that it refreshes us for our work.

In those leisure moments we all need to imitate the ancient who renewed his strength by touching the earth. It is of great value to attend meetings of other teachers, not to listen to papers but to extend acquaintance and experience in many a talk. School visiting provides similar value. We at the American School in West Hartford expect our teachers to take 2 days each year for such visits, and they bring to their work real benefit from those visits. But here and there we find others who do not share our feeling that such visiting is needful. The vice of complacency is widespread in many fields; can we try to curtail it in our own?

Not only by visits but by reading we try to enlarge our horizons. I am sure many schools share with us in providing professional reading

matter for the teachers. Whether that material is used to best advantage we have slight means of knowing. Monthly reviews at teachers' meetings might provide such means. It is a manifestation of a teacher's loyalty to her school and to her supervising teacher that she not neglect any of these provisions for her assistance. I was greatly amused at a survey made some years ago of the reading, professional reading, of teachers of the deaf. The amusement came in the gratification felt that a certain publication was widely read, more widely than others in the field, with apparently no recognition of the fact that the publication in question is furnished free to teachers, a fact that would, of course, make much difference in whether we take it or not. We are inclined to count time and pennies too closely when it comes to supporting our profession. In this connection may I tell a story I read recently about a lawyer who was asked if he belonged to a certain association? On saying that he did, and being asked how much he paid—it was \$50—and what he got for the amount he put in, he indignantly replied that every respectable lawyer belonged, that he didn't expect to get anything for it; it was his contribution to his profession.

It is not for the classroom alone we are working but for the world of freedom beyond the classroom. How to use that freedom we must show our pupils by the use we make of our own. Contributions to the life of the community, taking part in such community living as we can, are means by which we lead our pupils to like activity. Here is a teacher who does not join the Red Cross, whose pupils are wideeyed with wonder as to who is right: Miss ——— who joins or Miss ——— who does not. Cooperation in these things calls often for sacrifice of personal ease; the way is difficult, but worth while. In all phases of our work dark hours follow bright ones, but iron is forged by alternate heat and cold, so courage grows and with it, strength.

How do we measure our success? Not by the fact that John has covered the assigned text, I hope, but by whether he has learned to use his ability by growth in mental effort and application. There is no more thrilling moment in a teacher's life than that in which one realizes a child has begun to think for himself. In Connecticut, the commissioner of education has recently asked that curricula be revised for the student who may wish to go to college, to achieve that end on his recognized ability and less on the credit he has won by intensive study of academic subjects. We all know pupils who fail to enter college yet whose ability to do college work may be high but who did not know enough of the particular answers demanded in the test. Dr. Grace says, "The trouble now is, not that too many go to college but that too few are being developed and assisted to elect those areas of life which hold for each the greatest happiness and for society the greatest usefulness." As teachers, let us attain those areas for ourselves then lead our pupils to recognize and elect to occupy them. Someone has said that "education is the development of the capabilities which the child possesses to the end that he may live happily as a social being in a social world." For this world of tomorrow which so concerns us let us pass on to our pupils the knowledge that living by principles of order, joy, discipline, social conscience is better than living by rules; that in learning to think for themselves, to work for ideals they may show us that the end is better than the beginning because they have learned to walk alone.

THE SUPERVISING TEACHER AS DIRECTOR OF INTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

(ANNA V. CRAIG, supervising teacher, Iowa School)

In speaking of intracurricula activities I refer to those projects of learning aids directly alined with academic work though not included in regular classroom procedure.

These do not include such extracurricula activities as athletics, scouting, girls or boys clubs, or any social groups not under the direction of the supervising teacher.

They are devices by which a supervising teacher may help make routine work more meaningful, may bring the child more often into situations requiring exercise of skills that he has acquired in class, and may give him a little more practice in the use of his speech. speech-reading, reading, and other accomplishments.

The purpose is threefold:

First, to give pupils a broader scope of general information by constantly presenting extraneous facts in an interesting informal way and by giving varied repetitions of facts previously taught.

Second, to improve the pupils' attitude toward learning by encouraging inquisitiveness, by creating wholesome rivalry, and by giving public recognition to individual and group progress.

Third, to assist teachers by arranging cooperative programs and giving variety and inspiration to their work.

Because of the importance of reading as a basic skill for all learning much emphasis has been focused on speeding up reading ability. Aside from the classroom work the two most used and most effective aids to reading are probably the school library and the bulletin boards.

It is scarcely necessary to mention here the advantage of having the library, or reading room, conveniently located, as attractive as possible, well lighted and ventilated, comfortable, and free from disturbing influences.

Even more important is the selection of reading material which we offer the children. In purchasing books for the school library care must be taken to provide variety of subject matter on each grade level and in consideration of pupil interests as well as reading ability. Requiring a child to read subject matter that does not interest him soon defeats the social aim of the reading program while allowing him to pore in vain over material too far beyond his vocabulary comprehension is so discouraging that it will deter both social and educational aims.

Management of the library necessarily varies in different schools as no one method would be best suited to all situations. I feel that the more closely we approach the system used in the public libraries the more helpful it will be to pupils in using the libraries of their own communities after they leave school. In fact, it is good experience for the advanced pupils to go to the city library, if one is convenient, for reference material or other books not found in the school library. In this way we may teach them how and help them form the habit of using a public library at the same time.

In our school library one section is reserved for the youngest readers. It contains picture-story books all below the third-grade reading level. These books are read only in the library under the supervision of the

teacher. In the back of each book is a set of questions prepared by the teachers and supervising teacher. When a child has read one book he must be able to answer these questions before he is allowed to take another book. The questions are simple enough not to constitute a task yet comprehensive enough to show the teacher that the child has read and understood the story.

The older children are allowed to select books from the files and check them out for 2 weeks with the privilege of renewal. Ample time is allowed for browsing among the books and the librarian or a teacher is always there to assist in making selections and to maintain orderly conduct. Reading lists prepared for each class serve as guides though not requirements. Grade bonuses given for reports on these books sometimes serve as an incentive to pupils who have not yet learned to read for pleasure alone.

In addition to the fiction, biography, history, etc., on the shelves, the library contains an adequate supply of reference books and pamphlets, a quantity of good magazines, daily papers, school exchanges, and scrapbooks.

Books are put on reserve shelves for classes or courses when the occasion justifies it. Assignments are made requiring the use of reference material in order to teach the children to use it skillfully.

Each upper school class has certain periods during school hours to spend in the library reading or studying. Much freedom is allowed in the use of this time.

Bulletin boards and racks in the library are used for displaying new books and telling a little about each, calling attention to magazine articles, suggesting stories appropriate for special days and otherwise directing and encouraging good reading habits.

Within each classroom the bulletin board material usually follows closely the unit of work being studied. These are more or less managed by the pupils and on them we find pictures, maps, charts, news items, commendable papers, or almost anything the class wants to put up.

The hall bulletin boards are a constant source of interest and information. Besides those used by the principal and supervising teacher for notices, announcements, honor rolls, and items of local interest, there is a large board in each hall which the teachers take turns arranging. For these the teachers have free choice of subject matter. Current events occupy them a large part of the time and are most popular although practically every field comes in for its share of topics during the year. Pupil and class contributions are frequently offered and accepted for these boards in order that the whole school may have the benefit of something good that has been developed by one group and also as a means of giving recognition to a worthy project.

In another activity for the promotion of reading we turn our attention to the development of a literary background rather than interest and skill in reading mechanics. In spite of the best efforts of primary teachers and the use of pictures, pantomime, marionettes, and movies, we find it difficult to build up for the young deaf child a knowledge of children's literature which the average hearing child acquires before he starts to school, or at least in kindergarten. Our children in the middle school are not sufficiently familiar with Mother Goose characters, fairy tales, folklore, and fables without which knowledge

much of their future reading will lack meaning. By the time they have sufficient language ability to read many of these books they spurn the large print and childish pictures which would make them attractive to younger children. Rather than risk being seen with a book that might be considered babyish they will carry from the library an impressive-looking volume the contents of which mean nothing to them.

Working on the theory that all the world loves a story and that even the most fanciful and imaginative tales appeal to juniors when attractively presented, we instigated a story-hour program. Two classes or a homogeneous group of not more than about 20 children meet together once a week for 25 minutes, and several teachers take turns telling them stories.

Needless to say, great care is taken in the selection of stories, the preparation, and the presentation. Sometimes a long one is continued from one week to the next. Attention and interest never seem to lag. Proper names are usually written on the board and sometimes pictures are brought in as illustrations. To the children this is purely a recreation period and they love it. The stories are sometimes talked over in the class and the characters often referred to, but they are never used as drill material or in any way that might detract from the pleasure of them.

The exchange of teachers with each group affords good practice in speech-reading different people.

With the next older group, which includes the upper school, we carry on the story-hour program but shift the purpose from literature to social guidance. Morals and manners are stressed. Story-telling is gradually replaced by timely talks. The pupils are allowed to suggest topics about which they would like information and are encouraged to ask questions and contribute to the discussions. The informality of the group meetings promotes a fine teacher-pupil relationship and enables us to help them straighten out many little problems. We found this especially appreciated by the senior boys and girls who showed that they were concerned about the social and vocational problems they would encounter upon leaving school.

To further interest in current topics and general information and to give practice in conversational language we have followed the lead of radio broadcasts and sponsored a variety of contests and quiz programs. The senior girls challenged the boys to a battle of wits which developed into an interesting Friday evening social event. Younger groups had Mother Goose quizzes. Sunday-school classes reviewed Bible questions this way and so on within classes and between classes with various subject matter. It brings the play element into review work and makes fun of studying supplementary material.

Our extra activities in language have largely been limited to the most advanced classes. One senior composition class developed a nice journalism project this year. They got out a semimonthly paper called *Campus Chatter*, which was a 100-percent pupil activity.

They organized their own staff, gathered news, wrote feature articles, drew cartoons, typed and hectographed the papers, and distributed them to the other classes. The teacher's part was to read copy for errors and to act as advisor.

As part of the graduation requirements this year each senior was asked to write a 2,000-word essay on a subject of his own choice, pro-

vided the choice met with our approval. We assisted in finding source material, approved outlines, and guided the work, but required as much originality as was possible. The seriousness and diligence with which they accepted the challenge and the results were so gratifying that we plan to make it an annual requirement with a reward to be given on honor night for the best senior essay.

Honor night is the annual program preceding commencement, at which time each department gives recognition to pupils who have done outstanding work during the year. Besides a few individual awards, the academic department recognizes two groups which I would like to mention briefly.

The first consists of a certificate that is given to the one child on each grade level who has made the most improvement during the year. This is determined on three counts: Progress indicated by the Stanford achievement test scores, improvement in grades for the ensuing year as compared with those of the last year, and observations of teachers and supervising teacher.

The second consists of medals given to every pupil who has been on the honor roll all terms of the school year. The honor roll is made up at the end of each 6 weeks' term and posted during the entire time. To be on it requires a scholastic standing of B with satisfactory work and conduct in every other department, including vocational, physical education, dormitory, and playground. Aside from the honor of being on this list, it carries, for upper school pupils, one special privilege that is much to be desired. They are allowed to study at their own convenience instead of being required to attend the regular study hour, which means that they have a great deal of freedom in the evenings and can read, play, or even go to a movie occasionally. We make a point of providing some special treat for them once during the term. The lower school is not included in the honor-roll scheme and the middle school enjoys the honors without the extra privileges.

This brings up the question of grading and the possibility of attaching too much importance to grades or marks. Perhaps numerical or letter grades sent out as reports are futile; certainly they are inaccurate as a measure of ability or knowledge, but grades carefully kept in advanced classes are a fair indication of application and achievement and may be valuable as an incentive to work. They are definite and tangible and appeal to the spirit of competition in youth. The grades themselves are a poor goal to work for, but the progress necessary to attain them is the means to the general educational aim.

Any worth-while activity means work and demands much of the sponsor's time and attention; however, if it brightens the daily routine, awakens the enthusiasm of the pupils, and adds to their experiences, isn't it worth the effort?

PREREQUISITES OF A DEAF READER

(MARY S. STANDLEY, Illinois School)

When we see a well-bred child, we know she was trained by a well-bred person and that the child was capable of being taught. When we see a good cake, we know it was the product of a good cook and good material; in like manner when we see a beautiful picture, we know it

came from the brush of a person with a mind for beauty and he had some kind or other of material with which to work. When we see a child who can read well we know he had a teacher who could teach well and we know the child had a mind capable of being taught.

So I give you the theme of my paper, the prerequisites of a deaf reader, a teacher capable of teaching reading and a child with a mind capable of being taught. When I attach the descriptive phrase "capable of being taught," I am not seeking a loophole in which to take refuge for reading failures among deaf children. There should be no greater percent of nonreaders among deaf students than there is among hearing children of the same mentality level. Capable of being taught means having ordinary ability, the average intelligence of any hearing child who can learn to read and learn the ordinary things a normal child learns to do.

Then we take as our first prerequisite of a deaf reader, a mind of average intelligence or almost average intelligence. With our first requirement we also state a tenet: The average deaf child can learn to read well.

This being true that a deaf child can learn to read well, how can we best proceed to teach him? The verbal answer to the question is easily given: Give him a splendid understanding of his mother tongue, the English language. Giving the child the splendid understanding is not so easily done.

The training of the deaf child between the ages of 6 and 11 is of the gravest importance. If we give him at this time the teaching which is his God-given right, he will develop into a pupil able to read and learn and lead a happy life with books. At 6 he comes to us with no knowledge of language. He is responsive, eager to learn; he acquires readily and grows on his foundation. We make him either good or poor. If we make no mistakes and know how to give him what he needs, he will become a good student. So at about the age of 6 or 6½ years we want to begin earnest reading instruction. The child may or may not have acquired quite a little speech and vocabulary in pre-school, or he may be entering school for the first time. But he is ready for definite well-planned instruction.

I once held the theory that if we could have quantities of easy progressive reading books, from simplest pre-primers upward, we could make readers of all our deaf children. We still want to have the supply of attractive and interesting books where we can get them when we need them, but I reluctantly turned from this procedure alone because I was forced to admit it was not the right approach for deaf children. Whatever it might accomplish for hearing children, it did not meet the prime need of our language-hungry beginners.

A deaf child can never become a reader until he first has acquired a certain mastery of language. I will not say that language cannot be taught from the reading books. But it is not the best way. All of which brings us to our second prerequisite for a deaf reader: An understanding of language.

Immediately the questions are asked, How are we going to give deaf children an understanding of language? Are we to wait to let them read until they have had a great deal of language? To the second question we can easily say, "No; we need not wait very long to

begin the child's reading. He learns to read while learning language." The first question, How give an understanding of language? is the most important duty of the elementary school. The superintendent owes every deaf child in his State an understanding of language. Why put the responsibility on the superintendent? Because in most cases he it is who selects the supervising teacher who administers the teaching procedures of the school. True, it is the primary supervising teacher who is accountable for the language ability of the children in our schools. Why the supervising teacher and not the classroom teacher?

The supervising teacher is responsible because she alone assigns children to the various classes; she holds in her hand and head the authority to administer the language system of the school. She is in a position to see that there is no break between the language principles as taught in Miss A's room and in Miss B's room; that the child loses no link when she moves him from Miss B to Miss C.

That is why we find in our schools primary supervisors who are first and foremost splendid language teachers, who know language and possess a thorough and complete knowledge of how to teach it to deaf children so that they can use it and understand it.

At this point I make no brief for any one method of language teaching as opposed to any other method. The supervising teacher may be so profoundly a teacher of language that she has developed her own original system and has versed all of her teachers in her method so that they believe in it and can follow it expertly. Or she may have found in the achievement of some other great language teacher a completely satisfactory plan which she has adopted and has taken care that all of her teachers understand it and follow it. And I say method, system, or plan emphatically, for it is only by adhering to some one course that all principles are going to be taught most economically. If the child were to be under the same teacher for 4 years straight then perhaps it would not matter so much if there were a variation in methods. But when the child is more apt to have four to eight teachers in 4 years, then give us a system.

So we have for a deaf reader, prerequisite I, a child with average or almost average intelligence, and, prerequisite II, an understanding of language, taught thoroughly, logically, and consecutively.

Various points for discussion come up here. For instance, one teacher may work untiringly making chart stories for or with her class, while across the hall is a teacher who has determined to inculcate into the embryo minds committed to her a certain number of principles by June. She reviews and advances, reviews and builds on, but makes few chart stories. If the first teacher uses in her chart stories only principles that have been thoroughly taught, then she is to be highly commended. Her children will understand the things they are required to read as long as the reading involves no strange and confusing principle. But who will say that the strict language teacher is not giving her pupils a foundation that will enable them to make rapid strides later? A great deal of freedom may be the teacher's in developing her work. Only one thing is required—teach everything that she is supposed to cover in the allotted time, and in the method used throughout the school.

And what has so much language discussion to do with reading? Ability to understand and use language is the very basis and foundation of reading ability. No child can be a reader to any appreciable degree until he is first able to think in straight language. For what happens in the reading process? The child comprehends the idea of the sentence, associates that idea in his mind with other ideas, compares and draws a conclusion. Reading is not a simple process. It employs several mental exercises which themselves require language. Therefore, to develop reading ability in a deaf child we begin at about the age of 6 to give the child a thorough language training in a coherent language system, and in teaching language principles at the same time build a vocabulary of necessary, useful, and important words.

And for a deaf reader, prerequisite III—plenty of reading matter at every level of ability, from the time a child begins to use vocabulary cards, through commands, through picture captions, descriptions, preprimers, primers, and upward. And what caution, if any, are we to take in the use of our earliest books, and even primers, and with first and second readers? Ferret out every language principle, unfamiliar, and before it will be met in the book have it made known to the class, so that no discouragement will halt the child or awaken in him a dread of what should be the most enjoyable time of the day, the reading hour.

Prerequisite IV is in reality a corollary of No. III. Teach the child from preprimer days to give back the main idea of what he read. This can be done. It is at first slow and tedious, but, oh, the value to come from it! The child is trained to think about what he reads and if this is persisted in, the intermediate and advanced teachers will receive pupils with real reading ability. How can little tots give back or reproduce in speech or writing? Dramatizing is all right for fun, but we want speech and writing. Perhaps in elliptical sentences at first, but later by sentence forms, or in the device of the language system used in the school. Later, of course, the children will be able to tell the story in their own words.

To conclude: The deaf child will learn to read if: I, he has ordinary mental ability; II, his school has fulfilled its duty in giving him an understanding of language; III, he has always had plenty to read; IV, he has been taught to think and tell what he has read.

PRESCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN

Presiding: Faye C. Allen, W. Roby Allen School, Faribault, Minn.

Paper: The Preschool Program at St. Joseph's, Sister Anne Bernadine, St. Joseph's Institute, University City, Mo.

Paper: Ideas From Public Schools Adaptable to Schools for the Deaf, Laura Tittsworth, Gough School, San Francisco, Calif.

Discussion:

THE PRESCHOOL PROGRAM AT ST. JOSEPH'S

(Sister ANNE BERNADINE, St. Joseph's Institute, University City, Mo.)

Is preschool education beneficial to deaf children? We at St. Joseph's Institute believe it is after carrying on a very careful program of speech, lip reading, reading, and language for a number of years. We have had in our preschool children as young as 2½ years.

Some of these children are congenitally deaf, others have suffered severe illness and have only a slight remnant of residual hearing, while others are totally deaf. We have often been asked if we do not think two and a half too young to begin school. Our purpose in accepting children at so early an age is to give them a speaking, lip reading, and reading vocabulary sufficient to enable them to do first-grade work with normal first-grade textbooks by the time they have reached first-grade age. Then their education can be continued throughout the eight grades on the same level as hearing children and by the time they have reached 14 or 15 they are ready to enter high school and are capable of doing high-school work. We have proved to ourselves that this is quite possible with a deaf child of normal mentality. We now have in high schools for hearing children congenitally deaf children who began school at an early age. These children are receiving their high-school education at the age when hearing children do. They are having an opportunity to adjust themselves more gradually to the hearing group.

Speech, speech reading, and reading have been our main objectives. Conscious of the handicap under which these little people are working, we begin the first day to teach them to make their eyes do double duty—that is, to use them not only as eyes but also as ears. Lip reading prepares the way for speech and for reading so we begin our lip-reading vocabulary with objects that are familiar to the child and in which he is interested. Each child usually brings his favorite toy to school with him. He likes that toy and never tires of playing with it. This presents an ideal situation for the initial work in lip reading. The teacher takes the object—perhaps it is a car or an airplane—and says the word over and over again until she feels that her pupil has a good picture of it on the lips. Then she introduces another object, taking care that the lip movement when pronouncing it differs greatly from the first word. The same process of repetition follows until the child seems to recognize it. His lip-reading ability is tested when both objects are put before him and he must distinguish between them. Care should be taken that this repetition does not lead to monotony. It is up to the teacher to vary her presentation of the material so that although the children are seeing their meager vocabulary on their teacher's lips constantly, they are not always seeing it in exactly the same situation. Every preschool has an amount of material for hand-work. Modeling clay, for example, can be used by the smallest tot. After he has learned to lip read the word "ball" or any familiar object, let the teacher show him how to make that object. He will want to make several. No doubt he will want to save and admire them and should there be visitors during the day, you may be sure these objects will be brought to the foreground for inspection.

All unknown to him he is fixing that word firmly in his little mind and most probably is making a very good attempt at saying it. Then he has his peg boards. It is fun to make tables and chairs on these. Colored sticks have unending uses. Houses, big enough to cover the entire table can be built in any form or color. Large and small colored blocks make an ideal swimming pool, and dolls representing themselves, have a delightful time in imaginary water. It is true that in the beginning the children cannot tell you the names of the objects they are making but they do want you to know what it is, and they know

no limits in their eagerness to make the teacher understand what they mean. The teacher need not confine herself to lip reading only the single word. We begin very early to use these words in sentences, thereby training the child to lip read the entire thought rather than the single word. Calendar work may be used to quite an advantage when simple sentence work is begun. Our little people are always interested in the weather and it did not take them very long to learn to lip read and read the sentences describing it. The nursery rhymes may be used quite advantageously also. The children not only learn to lip read them but they enjoy dramatizing them. Picture books are real treasures. Our little people have access to a number of these and they scan the pages looking for objects with which they are familiar. Not infrequently have they discovered a picture similar to one about which they had learned to lip read a sentence and they lose no time in getting the picture to show the teacher the similarity. We have had little trouble in arousing interest in lip reading, although for a time we did think that a little 4-year-old boy would never get his start. This little boy was apparently very bright. He seemed right at home, got along very well with his playmates, was by no means a discipline problem, but to his way of thinking, the speech and speech-reading periods were simply a waste of time. The teacher had tried all methods of approach but Donald simply was not interested. One day, about the middle of October our principal came to the classroom. A little boy who had just added two new words to his vocabulary and was still quite elated over the fact, wanted her to see what he had accomplished. The principal was not only surprised but pleased and she showed her delight. During all this time the little 4-year-old was taking in the entire situation. He realized that his classmate was doing something he had not learned to do. After this discovery he settled down to work and in a short time his vocabulary exceeded that of the others. He had gotten his start, his efforts were praised and rewarded and now he is never happier than when he is increasing his speaking and lip-reading vocabulary.

In teaching speech our chief aim is to acquire freedom and naturalness. We try by means of babbling exercises to develop flexibility and to retain or further develop the voice quality. When these babbling exercises have been mastered to a certain degree, we begin the use of syllable drills. If a child is able to repeat the syllable drills with a certain amount of fluency and accuracy, we attempt words globally. If a child can pronounce words globally his speech is much more fluent and understandable. We, however, have not dispensed with the use of the analytical method. We all know that a great many words contain sounds that are not visible to the child. We have therefore found it a safe plan to use both these methods—the idea of the global word for fluency and the analytical method for accuracy. The preschool child, of course, is not capable of long periods of concentration. In the beginning a 5-minute speech period is the maximum length. These short periods several times a day are much more beneficial than longer periods at less frequent intervals. Our best results have been obtained when the speech periods have been preceded by a play period. As the child grows older, however, the speech period may be lengthened, but never to the point of fatigue. So much depends on the individual child that it is difficult and almost impossible to state how

much a child will acquire in a year. Each child receives individual speech instruction and progresses at his own rate of speed. To illustrate, one child may have difficulty in acquiring the breath consonants while another may find this quite simple, but for him the voiced consonants are a stumbling block. No attempt is therefore made to keep the children as a class so far as the acquisition of speech sounds is concerned. Each child has his own speech book and he can see for himself the progress he is making. It was amusing to watch the older group in the preschool this year. Competition in speech ran high. Just as soon as one of the group could say a new word and had the picture of the object pasted in his book, he would run over to the others, say the word, show the picture, and then find out whether or not anyone else in the group had the same word. If not, he had something to lord over the others, and if someone else had the same word, they made use of their number work or to find out how many children had gotten the new word and how many had not.

St. Joseph's Institute has a teaching staff of 11 trained Sister teachers and 1 secular teacher. Two of these Sisters are in charge of our youngest group of children. This group numbers 12, and while 1 Sister is giving individual speech instruction, the other supervises the play of the remaining 11. These same Sister teachers are also the supervisors in the dining room, in the dormitories, and on the playground. In other words, they are with the children all the time. Not so long ago someone told us that ours was a 24-hour-a-day job. That is quite true, but if the children are benefited by it, is it not worth all that and more? Any number of new words and expressions have been taught in the dining room and we at St. Joseph's Institute are all agreed that anything taught in the actual situation seems to stick. We had not the slightest idea that the teaching in the dining room was making such a deep impression until the parents of one of our little 6-year-old boys told us that he, while at home, asked for the foods that were being served. When he did not know the names, he wanted his parents to say the word for him so that he could learn to lip read. I might add here that the older children, who are always most anxious to help, asked if they might make flash cards and scrolls to be used at the table. It was most interesting to watch them vying with each other to see whose table had the largest reading and lip-reading vocabulary. Some of the older children look upon the babies almost as their younger brothers and sisters and in cases like these the competition is even greater. They invent all sorts of ways and means to encourage the little tot in whom they are interested, to be, as they put it, "smarter than" the little boy or girl someone else is coaching.

In the dormitories as elsewhere the teachers talk naturally to the children. Teachers of the deaf have often been criticized for permitting a child to go through the motions of brushing his teeth, washing his face, etc., without using any of the necessary articles. The Sisters supervising in the dormitories put into actual practice what has been taught in the classroom. All commands such as "Get your soap and towel." "Where is your comb?" "Button your dress or suit." "Tie your shoestring," etc., are not only used for lip reading, but they have been printed on scrolls and it is not unusual to find even the youngest holding a class in silent reading while they are waiting to be given a bath.

The playground, too, offers a fruitful field for the acquisition of new words, phrases, and expressions to say nothing of the opportunities afforded for the teaching of fair play and good sportsmanship and even the tiny tot hates to be labeled as a poor sport. Children, particularly deaf children, are close observers and it does not take them very long to detect the selfish, stubborn, self-willed child. In most cases the parents realize that their child has one or other of these undesirable character traits but they are at a loss to know how to correct it.

We have found the teaching of religion a very valuable asset in the development of character. I do not mean that in the preschool we teach character development as such, but we begin by the use of pictures and by the three processes of lip reading, reading, and speech to introduce the children to the Holy Family and by simple sentences give them some idea of the actions of the Holy Family. They can understand that Jesus, Mary, and Joseph were happy, that Jesus loved His Mother just as they love their mothers, that He helped her, and that they too can be a help to their parents.

You, no doubt, are all familiar with the story, "I am afraid you will find Mary terribly spoiled. We know it is our own fault, but we all give in to her because she is deaf." Parents really do not mean to be building up habits that the child will have to break down and it calls for a very strong will not to give in to their whims and fancies. When the parents request that their child be admitted to St. Joseph's Institute, we explain to them that they must make the child understand that they want him to come to school, and it is the parents who must make the separation. No teacher ever takes a screaming child from the arms of his parents. Unless the parents can make up their minds to bring the child to school and leave him with the others without causing a scene and disturbing the rest of the children, that child is not accepted in school. This may seem very hard and cruel to the parents, but unless they cooperate and work with the teachers, our work is of little or no avail. Experience has taught us that when the child knows that his parents want him to come to school, want him to be educated, that child will come and he will be ready to put forth his best efforts in the classroom, whereas should a child be allowed to throw a tantrum or two, besides upsetting the rest of the class, it will be several days before he can set his mind to the work in hand. It is only here and there that we have met parents who cannot, or shall we say will not, be convinced that their conduct is very detrimental and that the child is the one who really suffers on account of it. In our talks with the parents, we encourage them to continue classroom work when the children are at home. We show the parents what the children have learned and offer suggestions as to the best means of retaining and enlarging their vocabulary. When the children leave for their summer vacation the teacher gives them a set of pictures and flash cards that have been used for reading and lip reading. Ordinarily the parents cooperate with us in this regard and a great deal of time need not be spent in reviewing and "brushing up" when the children return in September.

Our experience with these little deaf children has proved to us that early education is not only quite possible but very necessary, and that the sooner we begin it, the greater chance we will have of mak-

ing speech their predominating medium of thought. They can then be given the same education that they would be capable of mastering if they could hear.

IDEAS FROM PUBLIC SCHOOLS ADAPTABLE TO SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF

(LAURA TITTSWORTH, Gough School, San Francisco, Calif.)

When a hearing child enters school for the first time, he is not plunged immediately into a definite routine. He is given an opportunity to examine the equipment of the classroom, and to become acquainted with his teacher and his classmates. The adjustment a deaf child must make when he enters a residential school is far greater than that which his hearing brother must make on entering a day school. With this in mind, shouldn't we be more cautious about introducing the deaf child to a definite routine?

One must always consider the mental age of the child. Is he ready for speech and lip reading? I am afraid we are prone to force these subjects on the child when he enters school, without considering his readiness for them. We hear much about reading readiness, but do we apply that to speech and lip reading? Both of these subjects cause a greater strain on the child than silent reading.

Young children are also very active, and as a counter balance, and also to relieve the strain of the many adjustments they must make, the children should have a great deal of rest. The program of the kindergarten is planned with this in mind. There is a 20 minute rest period in the morning. Then the room is darkened, and the children rest on cots, or on rugs on the floor. There are also short periods that require physical energy. These are always followed by rest periods. Sometimes the child sits quietly in his chair; sometimes he puts his head on the table.

The midmorning lunch is also considered important in the public school. Milk and crackers are served at this time. Aside from the nutrient value, which is most important, the children have an opportunity for social adjustment. At first they may not be able to open their milk, and are very uncertain about passing straws and crackers. Soon they develop these habits and reap a deep satisfaction from them. Muscular coordination comes into play here, for it is not easy for the very young child to pass a plate of crackers without tipping over his milk or spilling the crackers on the floor.

Social adjustment is another thing that is stressed in schools for hearing children. Here the child learns to respect the rights of others, learns cooperation, care of materials, and safety rules. All these are as important to the deaf child as to the hearing child. When a hearing child goes into a store, he wants to handle the objects which are for sale and in many cases will do a certain amount of damage. But they have already been taught to a certain extent the value of merchandise and the care that should be taken in handling objects. The deaf child is even more curious about the things he sees in a store, and insists on handling everything. It is especially important that he be taught carefulness in handling objects because during the course of his life, more of his learning will come through his senses of sight and touch than in the case of the hearing child.

Of great importance in the school for hearing children is the doll house. This gives the child an opportunity for cooperation, social adjustment, and dramatization. The equipment for the doll house includes dolls, furniture, dishes, washing and ironing equipment, stove and cooking utensils, mop, broom, and other materials for cleaning. All these are of the sturdiest possible materials.

Aside from the afore-mentioned results, there is an excellent opportunity for lip reading with the doll house. This lip reading is the type that would have a real meaning and use for the child.

Blocks also are used a great deal. At first the child is satisfied with large blocks of different shapes. As he develops these do not meet his needs, and regular building blocks that fit together are introduced.

Clay is another excellent medium. At first the objects will be unrecognizable by anyone but the child. Later they take more obvious form. There are wonderful opportunities to develop the child's individuality. Numerous things can be made for the doll house. One thing the children especially like to make is dishes. These can be painted, then given a thin coat of shellac.

Wood is an invaluable device for developing the large muscles. Materials for that include a small workbench, hammer, saw, nails, brace and bit, a small plane, cylinders, button molds for wheels, and sandpaper. The sandpaper is more easily used if it is fastened around a wooden block, or a sandpaper holder costing about 10 cents can be obtained at any hardware store. Soft pine has been found the most satisfactory wood.

There should be a number of pictures and books in the kindergarten. Start with a few, and add others gradually.

One material we have found excellent for use with the deaf is kalsomine paint. Practically no guidance is given the child in its use. At first his pictures are likely to be just daubs. Later they take more form. Strange to say even the young deaf child has something definite in mind when he paints the pictures. We cannot understand his idea often, but it satisfies him.

Later in the year, when the children go on excursions, they illustrate the chart stories with paint. They like to look over the stories later, and point to the word clown then to the picture of it.

Materials for kalsomine paint include the paint, easel, brushes, and unprinted newspaper. The easel should be about 47 inches high with a drawer about 22 inches from the floor to hold the paint jars.

These various subjects upon which I have touched have been well known for sometime under the term of "occupational therapy." The value of occupational therapy has long before now proved its worth in the healing and readjustment of those who are paralytic, or recovering from long illnesses. It has proved its worth in schools for the hearing in helping ill-adjusted and mentally deficient children find their places.

Deaf children have even more need than either the hearing, or many of the sick, for adjustment. They must accept early in life the fact that they are handicapped. What better method could be found than one which teaches them very early in life the joy of creation and of skill of the hand? What better method could be found to help that child forget his handicap and make of him an asset to our civilization?

SPEECH DEVELOPMENT

Leader: Jennie M. Henderson, principal, Horace Mann School, Roxbury, Mass.

Paper and film: Research work and experiments in speech as conducted in the speech and hearing clinic of Ohio State University, Dr. Marie K. Mason, Ohio State University.

AURICULAR TRAINING AND RHYTHM

Leader: Marshall S. Hester, supervising teacher, advanced department, California School.

Panel discussion: Construction, care, and servicing of hearing aids, Dr. A. L. Brown, president, Colorado School; A. G. Norris, supervising teacher, vocational department, Missouri School; V. Becker, principal, Wisconsin School, J. H. Galloway, principal, Louisiana School.

CURRICULUM CONTENT

Leader: Roy G. Parks, principal, Georgia School.

Paper: What its curriculum means to a school, Enfield Joiner, supervising teacher training, St. Mary's School, Buffalo, N. Y.

Paper: Straight language in the primary department, Marie S. Kennard, supervising teacher, primary department, Georgia School.

Paper: Language, Mary E. Numbers, in charge, middle school, Clarke School, Northampton, Mass.

WHAT ITS CURRICULUM MEANS TO A SCHOOL

(ENFIELD JOINER, supervising, teacher training, St. Mary's School, Buffalo, N. Y.)

We have fashions in words just as we have fashions in other things. Right now a word very much in use with a connotation not at all agreeable is the word "regimentation." It is being applied to processes of education, and the regimentation of pupils, of classes, of plans of work is being attacked. Away with curricula, with courses of study, with outlines of work. Let pupils express themselves by choosing what they wish to learn, let teachers, if they may be called teachers, follow the leading of each individual child. Let there be no regimentation, no mental herding.

The word "regimentation" is derived from the Latin verb "regere," to guide, to rule. The noun means classifying, getting things in order, being in fighting trim. Now we connote it with Hitlerism, fascism, dictatorship, but that is simply because in countries where regimentation has gone too far the word has lost its real meaning.

Those who feel themselves to be the progressives in our special field of education are now looking on the old-fashioned course of study, or outline of work, as a form of regimentation. They are emphasizing learning rather than teaching. The teacher should follow no definite plan of work save such an one as the inclination and interest of pupils suggest.

As in most things the better course lies somewhere in between. But if it were a matter of choosing between a definite course of study for a class or a school to follow, and none at all, I would swing so far to the right as almost to reach one extreme and accept rigid regimentation. Only the most exceptional teacher, highly trained, widely experienced, excellently endowed with common sense, can make for herself a well-balanced, clear program. Nor can it be satisfactorily done in a haphazard, day-by-day way. True progress is the result of the long view.

On setting out for a motor trip, what is the first thing you would do? You would get a road map, assemble all the information you could obtain, select your route. If you started out in a general direction, turned into any road which might intrigue your fancy, made no effort to equalize your driving days, how long would it take you to reach your goal? What would happen to the mariner if he sailed without chart or compass? Discarding definite curricula in our schools is just about as sensible as that.

This does not mean that classroom planning should not be flexible, and that the curriculum should not be adapted to the needs and interests of the class and the school. But each should have a plotted, year-by-year outline of work and it should be followed. There was a time when in most of our schools the course of study amounted to no more than a pile of dusty old yearbooks which had been collected from year to year, which teachers experienced and inexperienced tried to follow. On one side of the hall a teacher trained at one training center would be trying to use one set of notes, while on the other side a teacher trained somewhere else or not trained at all would be trying to use another set of notes. In teaching language four little books known as Miss Sweet's Readers were about all the help they had. These little volumes, quaint little books to us now, represented the first emergence from chaos in the American schools. They were printed at Hartford, and their writing and publication mark an epoch in our progress. In time they were revised, and in 1923 there appeared the first of that invaluable series, Language Stories and Drills by Croker, Jones, and Pratt. These four books covering the language work in many of our schools of from 4 to 6 years followed the order of presenting language principles which Miss Sweet had worked out. I have often been asked if I used, the Croker, Jones, and Pratt books, and my answer has been an emphatic "yes." I would advise all teachers to do so until something better—something which has been proven to be better—has been offered.

Yesterday Mr. Parke spoke of the necessity for teacher participation in the making of a curriculum. I heartily agreed with what he said. Within the last several years I have been in more or less close contact with three schools which were making or revising their outlines of work. In each of these schools I found that practically the same procedure was being followed. For several years each teacher had kept a detailed record of her work. She had been given an indexed notebook and had written down week by week what her class had covered in language, speech, speech reading, and in other subjects. In each succeeding year these records had been checked, and changes made when it became advisable. The result has been the integration of this work in an outline adapted to the needs of each school. For the upbuilding and betterment of a school it seems to me that three things are necessary and of equal importance: First, a practical outline of work and teachers who under capable, conscientious leadership have the teaching ability, the training, and the experience to follow it; second, careful grading of pupils determined by their mentality and achievement level; third, good wholesome discipline, for without it there can be no attention, no concentration. A strong believer in the theory that we learn best by doing, I state it has been my experience that with the preponderating majority of small and ado-

lescent children, there is not much learning without aggressive teaching, and that there can be but little teaching and learning without control. It is the first task of the teacher to establish it.

In a recent issue of the New York Sunday Times, magazine section, there appeared an article on The Art of Teaching. The distinguishing characteristics of good teaching were given as lucidity, responsibility, honesty, and discipline. Old-fashioned words these, representing qualities which we need to think about and to practice, for such qualities form the bedrock of character. All-important as it is that our pupils should be given the use and comprehension of language, speech, and speech reading, the best school is that one where the development of character is stressed, and where the curriculum and training provide a design for useful, happy living.

STRAIGHT LANGUAGE IN THE PRIMARY DEPARTMENT

(MARIE S. KENNARD, supervising teacher, primary department, Georgia School)

Miss Fitzgerald's desire in presenting Straight Language was the result of years of intense longing to help the deaf child by giving him a command of language that would enable him to take his place on a plane with hearing people, and to develop his reason, judgment, and powers of discrimination, so that he will think and act as do those hearing people.

Straight Language is for all deaf children whether they are taught orally, manually, or however it may be. Back of the title there lies the assumption that straight language implies straight thinking.

We who are following Straight Language are trying to take advantage of every opportunity to broaden the child's outlook on life, to familiarize him with situations in which he may find himself, and to give him the necessary language for it all.

I should like to emphasize three points which should be kept in mind by every teacher of the deaf. We must be sure that all language work states the child's own mental picture—that is, language he understands and which is clear to him. A fatal mistake is made by having him memorize what he does not visualize. His impression and mental picture are too often not clear-cut. We must have his mental picture and help him get the thought of others through language, but we must first put his mental pictures into words.

The deaf child cannot lean upon his hearing sense in deciding how best to express his thoughts for he has no hearing sense. He must be given a substitute. We may correct mistakes over and over again, but if he is unable to see the reason for the changes, he can only resort to memory. A correction with a reason for it stands an excellent chance of sticking and of helping in a similar instance in the future. If a rule is understood by the child, and the teacher, instead of shaking her head and correcting the mistake herself, will see that he applies it, he will soon do so unconsciously.

The deaf child cannot be taught the English language as one would teach a foreigner. The foreigner has a clear mental picture. He has his own language to fall back upon and a clear understanding of what he wishes to express. The chances are that the deaf child has no mental picture, and the danger is that his language may be a jumble of memorized words, many or most of which are meaningless to him.

Upon the primary teacher rests the responsibility of starting the work in the right way. The same mode of procedure must be used and enlarged upon by the intermediate and advanced teachers; and while each teacher should be permitted and encouraged to assert her originality and individuality, the fundamental principles in language teaching should be the same throughout the grades in each school, and the closest cooperation should exist between the teachers.

The first step in the teaching of language is to have the child understand that there is a medium of expressing thought other than the crude gestures with which he is accustomed to make known his bodily wants in the home. It is true that a deaf child cannot express his thoughts in language until he has a vocabulary, but he can and does have ideas and—unless suppressed to a point of mental inertia—a desire to express them. The course of study makes provision for the child to have a wealth of experience through his own activities. In the hands of a skillful teacher, this is a mine of wealth which can be used with the most profitable results. Such teaching is based upon the soundest of principles, for we begin with the known and proceed to the unknown. We can lead the child by easy stages from the simple to the complex. Each activity is talked about, and the child is encouraged to tell what he saw and did. Thus the meaning of the use of the vocabulary of the experienced is absorbed. His ideas must come from impressions made by what he himself experiences. So many glorious opportunities for the deaf child gradually to absorb the meaning and use of language are lost by failing to introduce new vocabulary and constructions when they would make the most vivid and therefore the most lasting impression. The teacher who excels in language teaching is the one who knows when it is wise to seize such opportunities and when it is still wiser to make no attempt to put the child's thoughts into words. The greatest single thing that will bring success in teaching is the child's interest. Without it little or nothing can be accomplished. Live language is the language of everyday, of things that center in and around the lives of the children themselves and, hence, are the things that interest. The child's ideas should be stimulated constantly in every possible way—by pictures, by stories, by talking to him about his possessions and daily experiences. Here lies the difference between language becoming a vital part of the child's mental life and language being only something required at times as a classroom exercise.

There is no place in straight language for unnatural, mechanical language nor for ways of acquiring it. Neither is there a place for merely memorized language. A line is drawn between the understanding of language and the use of language, but we insist that visualization and understanding go hand in hand as the child proceeds to acquire language. All through straight language, understanding precedes use. One of our mottoes is "Be definite." We never accept ground-out, parrotlike statements with little or no meaning, or statements that give hazy or incomplete ideas. We work for clear mental pictures and always to have the same picture for both teacher and child.

When a child is trying to express himself, his teacher must be sure that she is giving him the language to fit his mental picture. She must learn to put herself in his place and know—not guess at—what

he is trying to say. Granted that we thus come down to the child's level at first, we should have no intention of staying there. As soon as he can take more, we should give it to him and never accept anything less. A child so taught will understand the language that he gradually acquires and will take pride in branching out and using all that he is given. Just as soon as he can speak or write one word, the teacher must see that speaking or writing that word is substituted for any other form of expression. It is only thus that the use of language will gradually take the place of gestures in the child's emotional and mental life. We must see that he uses all his language every day and almost every hour of the day; however, we must be sure that he is not getting beyond his depth but is wading in just as deeply as he is able. We should talk, talk talk, and repeat, repeat, repeat, always being sure that the child understands what he is talking about and what we are talking about.

We should give the deaf child the opportunity to absorb knowledge. If we give him all possible chances to do so, we can eliminate much tiring drill later on. There is too great a tendency to consider certain work only for certain grades and to refuse to let him have a peep before he reaches the scheduled grade.

We should look ahead to results not only in speech and speech reading but also in mental development. We must be just as interested in mental development as we are in speech and speech reading. The more interested we are along this line, the better oral work we will have. To allow the deaf child to memorize his way through even the first few years of school is to add unfairly to his already heavy handicap. If this development were begun at once and systematically continued, he would acquire language which he could both use and understand, and we should hear fewer remarks to the effect that this or that child lacks reason and judgment. A deaf child has so much to learn that every effort should be exerted toward leading him to express in natural, correct English everything he tries to say. We should place before him only correct English. One of the first rules given to the teacher who uses Straight Language is not to teach what must later be undone. If such were the fruits of all language work, our older deaf children in their intercourse with those in the hearing world, would appear less different than is now the case. A child's "original language" is the real criterion of what his teachers have done for him. So long as we lay down for the deaf child certain limitations and contend that he is different from one who hears, he will continue to appear so. We should lift these thoughts of limitation and seek for and apply the proper method of approach.

Step by step the method develops the deaf child mentally. Besides the exercises and games especially for mental development and which are launched during the preparatory year, by means of the method itself the child is constantly being acquainted with the why and wherefore of things. He is led from the beginning to reason and can see when he is wrong and why. Mental development will never be brought about through mere memory work. Until much of the present-day memory work in primary classes is eliminated and more reason and judgment are brought into play, one of the greatest problems of the intermediate teacher will remain unsolved. The intermediate teacher should receive children who have begun to reason and to think for

themselves. Then hers will be the joy of continuing the work of mental development.

The Fitzgerald Key is a sentence pattern to guide the deaf child in the acquisition of language very much as hearing sense guides the hearing. It is not only for the primary grades but for all grades and all subjects. Language acquired through its use is smooth, natural, and correct. Without some such guide as the key, there is sure to be too much merely memorized language. The deaf child should be kept on the safe side. He is not burdened with technical terms; however, the teacher gradually uses necessary terms herself and from seeing them again and again, the child gradually absorbs them. The teacher who has a good understanding of grammar can show the child by means of the key why a thing is right and vice versa. As he sees reasons, he has something to which to hold and on which he can build. With something reasonably simple to guide him, constructions, one after another, are mastered faster than would otherwise be the case, and the child is building on a sure and lasting foundation.

We have proved to our satisfaction that classification of words and thoughts (under key words and the few symbols that we use) and the understanding that follows hasten, to say the least, the child's grasp and spontaneous use of English. By means of the key words and the use of the key, the child begins at once to sense the parts of speech and their offices. Phrases and clauses are recognized as a whole and both are seen in their relation to the rest of the statements in which they occur. When the key is systematically used, question forms always take care of themselves. The reason is that the different parts of the key give not only the correct form, but the sense, also; therefore, the question work may be based on the key. The child sees the missing thought, as well as the key word, by which to handle the thought in the question.

The key is always in sight. Except when new principles are introduced, the child who has the key from the beginning, or even very early in his school life, should do comparatively little written work in the key. He has less to undo than has the child whose language must first be straightened before it can be kept straight. The key not only serves as a guide to straighten the language he already has, but steers him safely on in the acquisition of language that is new. As there is little work under the key, there should be no tendency on the part of the child to write in columns. If there is such a tendency, it is because the teacher is not on the job. The idea is to have him get the order mentally.

There should be a great deal of general conversational language including idiomatic expressions. One of the best ways for the deaf child to acquire a good workable understanding of English is through speech reading, for by speech reading only will he see the thousand and one expressions that are used every day by all of us.

We should strive to keep our ears so attuned to the language of hearing people that we can instantly detect anything unnatural in that of the deaf child; and not for a moment should we tolerate an unnatural word or expression. Everything not expressed in a hearing way should remain distasteful to a teacher of the deaf. The ability to converse well and to understand English with all its peculiar variety of expressions, is an accomplishment which, once

acquired, will be a never-ending source of pleasure to the deaf child. Given the kind of language he should have, and the all-round mental and spiritual development that is his right, then—and then only—will the deaf child be really started on the road to happy, normal manhood or womanhood.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Leader: Arthur G. Norris, supervising, vocational department, Missouri School.

Panel discussion: Should We Do Anything Concerning Teacher Training? Same panel members as on Tuesday.

SHOULD WE DO ANYTHING CONCERNING TEACHER TRAINING?

Mr. NORRIS. Today we would like to take up other weaknesses in our vocational programs. Tomorrow we will discuss the solutions that are envisioned for these problems. Many of us feel that it is not always ability to do the job that makes for the best in teaching. The question for discussion now is, Should we do anything concerning teacher training?

Mr. LANG RUSSEL. It is my idea that all teachers in vocational work should have teacher training. Trade teachers in public schools have rigid qualifications to meet. We should bring ours up to those requirements.

Mr. NORRIS. Where would you go to get trades teachers?

Mr. RUSSEL. To the industries.

Mr. H. M. QUIGLEY. I don't know where to get teachers of that kind.

Mr. RUSSEL. I obtained a trade teacher from industry.

Mr. G. I. HARRIS. In my opinion our teachers should work in the summertime at trades with real shop surroundings. Teacher training courses could be offered at Gallaudet College.

Mr. H. B. BARNES. Gallaudet is not a good place to teach vocational subjects. Set up a national vocational school—send them there and have them come back as good industrial arts teachers. There is no place now to get good vocational teachers for the deaf.

Mr. NORRIS. There have arisen two ideas: (1) That there be a separate school for the training of vocational teachers of the deaf, and (2) that we should set up additional training centers in our present system. For academic work we have a school in Gallaudet for the training of teachers. Why should we not recognize the need for trained vocational teachers by the adoption of one of these plans?

Mr. C. F. SMITH. It seems to me that the profession is too college-degree minded, rather than putting emphasis on actual ability to do work. We could get the teachers from the unions. The schools are too theoretical and not practical. I am definitely sure that we have deaf boys who can do better work than some of the W. P. A. workers that are doing work at the Minnesota School.

Mr. D. COATS. It is a good idea to get the teachers from the unions, but I do not know that they know the trades from a to z. We should, perhaps, have a summer school for teaching technique in order to raise the teacher qualifications.

Mr. NORRIS. You mean to supplement the practical training with a little teacher training in summer courses?

Mr. COATS. Yes.

Mr. QUIGLEY. Where can vocational teachers get training? Why not use the convention time for such a course? Those that are interested in that type of work are those who attend. Have an organized teacher-training program. The extra expense would be practically nothing. If only one idea was obtained, that one idea is worth all the time and effort that it took to put it over in the convention.

Mr. NORRIS. We toyed with the idea for this convention, but we were outvoted.

Mr. BARNES. A teacher should not be selected alone for his skill or knowledge of teaching, but also for his faith in the ability of deaf people to become good workers. The teacher should not just pick out the best pupils and concentrate on them, but should try to give all the same treatment.

Mr. NORRIS. Would you say that a short course of 5 days on the technique of teaching is enough?

Mr. A. L. SMITH (Texas). As I understand it you will deal only with vocational teaching?

Mr. NORRIS. Yes.

Mr. COATS. Do you intend that we have a course extending after the convention or held during the convention?

Mr. QUIGLEY. I think that because of the expense to the teacher it would be best to hold the meetings—training—during the convention.

Dr. T. L. ANDERSON. Where would you get the teachers?

Mr. QUIGLEY. Use the most desirable teachers among those we know.

Mr. BARNES. Should the course last 2, 3, 6 weeks or 5 days?

Mr. U. C. JONES (Tennessee). When you go to summer school at the university the general courses last 6 weeks; the trades' short courses last 2 weeks. They cover the whole subject in a short time. Why can't we have something like that for the deaf?

Mr. RUSSEL. Medical conventions hold clinics. Why could the visitors not come in and see, say, the beauty course that is being used here? Suppose we vote upon the question of having a clinic now and before the time of the convention decide upon the amount of time necessary for it.

Mr. SMITH. A more important point is that the deaf boy is too slow. Speed is an essential quality. How many colleges teach the domestic-science teachers to go out to the hen house and catch the chicken, kill, and prepare it for the Sunday dinner? Can the teacher prepare the fish that are brought home?

Mrs. D. NORMAN (Oklahoma). When I took training for teaching domestic science, we were required to live on three levels. The first was the poor level. To pass the course successfully we had to live within the amount allotted us, plan adequate meals with the limited amount of money. Then there was the medium and the high level of living.

Mr. NORRIS. There are two questions before us: (1) Do you think it advisable to hold the clinic during the convention? (2) How long do you think the course should last?

(A vote was taken on the first question and it was decided that a clinic should be held. A committee is to be appointed for the purpose

of deciding the length of time. Most of the audience and panel thought the clinic should last more than 5 days.)

Dr. ANDERSON. This matter of teacher training is serious. The admission is that if a teacher died or was dismissed that we would be hard pressed to find a new one. I always keep my eye on prospective new teachers. It is not so much the improvement of what we have, as it is to secure the better teachers. You might get good and poor teachers even with teacher training. The essential thing is that he should know the subject. Responsibility of training the teacher on the job rests with the principal. The teacher should bring his teacher training with him when he comes.

Mr. NORRIS. It is very necessary that we get down to fundamentals in our teaching. What about vocational courses of study? Do we need a plan to show where we are taking these children?

Mr. C. B. GROW. We should work along the line of giving the proper information to teaching courses in the correct manner.

Mr. K. MURPHY (New Jersey). I should like to say that we, in our schools, must accept all deaf children; whereas in schools for the hearing the students are divided (with regard to ages). In our school we must take every boy and every girl regardless of whether he can make a success or not in any vocational subject, and therefore we must make our courses of study much more flexible.

Mr. RUSSEL. How many of us use job sheets outlined in detail?

(The audience was polled—12 used them, 9 graded them.)

Mr. BARNES. We use such a plan (job sheets) in barbering and beauty culture because of the State requirements. Courses of study are practically useless because of the ages of the pupils. We use grade cards instead.

(The meeting was adjourned until the next day.)

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Leader: George W. Harlow, Pennsylvania School.

Paper: The Contributions of Interscholastic Athletics as Compared With Their Costs, Jacob Caskey, Indiana School.

Paper: A Survey of Athletic Associations in Southern Schools for the Deaf, Jess M. Smith, Jr., Tennessee School.

A SURVEY OF ATHLETIC ASSOCIATIONS IN SOUTHERN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF

(JESS M. SMITH, Jr., Tennessee School)

To meet one of the requirements for graduation from the University of Tennessee I prepared and submitted a thesis consisting of a survey of athletic associations of 12 out of 13 southern schools for the deaf. My completed paper covered the ground from several angles—organization, financial matters, eligibility rules, and membership in State high school athletic associations. In my talk this morning I shall touch very briefly upon several of these points.

I found that all the southern schools have some set-up for administering interscholastic athletics, although a few do not go so far so to call the organization an athletic association.

Since the administration of these associations varies, I shall give outlines of the various plans:

Alabama: Student officers under guidance of a faculty adviser govern the athletic association. The student treasurer aided by the faculty adviser receives and disburses funds. Checks are signed by the student treasurer and are countersigned by the faculty adviser.

Arkansas: Athletic matters are in the hands of a faculty committee. The treasurer of this committee receives and disburses funds.

Florida: There is no athletic association and the school office receives and disburses funds.

Kentucky: The athletic director heads the athletic association and also handles the athletic funds.

Louisiana: Since the athletic association has been discontinued, the principal of vocations receives and disburses athletic funds.

Mississippi: Heading the association is the athletic director. He, as well as the main office, receives and disburses funds.

North Carolina: The athletic director heads the athletic association, but the steward of the school handles financial matters.

Oklahoma: A board consisting of one officer of the school, two teachers, and two students makes up the athletic association personnel. Funds are handled by the secretary of the board, but transactions are subject to approval by other members.

South Carolina: No athletic association exists, and the superintendent handles all athletic receipts and disbursements through his office.

Tennessee: An athletic association consisting of the three members of the coaching staff and three members of the faculty passes on all matters of importance. The athletic director is president of the association. Receipts and disbursements are handled by both the superintendent and the principal. At the end of the year the principal turns in his balance and statement to the superintendent, who then draws up the yearly statement of receipts and disbursements.

Texas: The superintendent heads the athletic association. The treasurer of the athletic club has charge of funds.

Virginia: The athletic director heads the athletic association and makes all receipts and disbursements.

From the above outlines it may be seen that there is very little student representation in the athletic associations. The South has not followed the trend in other sections in allowing students practical control of athletic funds. At present most of the schools have students selling candy and cold drinks and place them in charge of the gate. It is my belief that lack of student representation is largely due to the fact that most of the schools have no regulations governing membership in their athletic associations. The remedy is to have every student become a member of the athletic association by paying a yearly fee which entitles the student to all home athletic contests and a vote on student officers or representatives.

In some instances the policy of appointing the athletic committee from the teachers and officers of the schools is the wisest plan. Even where student officers handle athletic finances, it is necessary for the school office or some teacher or officer to hold the money for safekeeping.

Some States are very generous in providing equipment for the school athletic programs but some athletic associations shoulder the

full burden of outfitting their teams and furnishing physical education equipment.

Alabama: School does not furnish athletic equipment except for playground purposes. No money is received from the school for the athletic program.

Arkansas: School furnishes major equipment but no money.

Florida: State provides about \$330 worth of athletic equipment annually as well as about \$350 cash.

Louisiana: Athletic equipment is furnished to a small extent and cash in the amount of about \$85 a year.

Kentucky: School furnishes neither equipment nor money.

Mississippi: School furnishes nothing at all.

North Carolina: Equipment worth \$200 and \$250 cash furnished by the school.

Oklahoma: School does not furnish equipment.

South Carolina: School furnishes athletic equipment and a small amount of money.

Tennessee: State furnishes nearly all the equipment but no money.

Texas: School furnishes athletic equipment which sometimes amounts to as much as \$900 per year.

Virginia: Athletic association receives about \$100 a year from school for purchase of athletic equipment.

Football and basketball are the major sports of southern schools for the deaf. Nine out of thirteen schools had football teams last year. South Carolina has never had a football team. Mississippi and Oklahoma have abandoned football for a while. Louisiana did not put a team on the field last fall because its field was torn up.

Nine out of thirteen southern schools have girls' basketball teams, and all 13 schools play extensive boys' schedules.

A few schools still have baseball, but softball is in the lead both as an interscholastic and as an intramural sport.

SOCIAL AND CHARACTER TRAINING

Presiding: Sam B. Craig, principal, Kendall School, Washington, D. C.

Paper: What of the Products? Alan B. Crammatte and Max Friedman, New York School.

WHAT OF THE PRODUCTS?

(ALAN B. CRAMMATTE and MAX FRIEDMAN, New York School)

The theme of this convention is Molding Educational Opportunities for the Deaf for the World of Tomorrow With the Tools of Today. It might be well before tooling up for tomorrow to estimate the capabilities of our tools, their limits, and how they may be most effectively employed. In judging the efficiency of our tools it is necessary to look to what they have produced in the past. This paper is concerned with the tools for molding character and the efficiency and proper use of such of these tools as are now extant in schools for the deaf as shown by their products, the graduates.

In the words of the late Dr. J. Schuyler Long, a farsighted educator of the deaf: "The place to test the success of an educational system is

not in the schoolroom nor in conversation over the social teacup, but out where men toil and earn their daily bread."

Accepting Dr. Long's thesis, how are we to measure the character training in our educational system as shown "out where men toil and earn their daily bread"? The line of attack for this paper was to seek the judgment of graduates who have made good and whose occupation or interest in the welfare of their kind has brought them into contact with large groups of deaf persons. Letters were sent to a selected list of deaf leaders, seeking their opinions of the character traits, both good and bad, of the deaf people they have known. They were also asked to suggest means whereby the schools might improve their character-training tools. The group included welfare workers, placement officers, teachers, clergymen, officials in organizations of the deaf and others whose efforts in the line of welfare of the deaf have brought them to the fore; a list of those who replied is appended to this paper. An effort was made to include all geographic sections of the country and all national organizations of the deaf. No formal questionnaire was attempted, with the thought that more spontaneous opinions would be obtained by an informal approach.

The validity of the paper as a scientific study may be open to question, but the intention was not a scientific evaluation. Clues rather than conclusions were sought, the opinions of deaf persons which would carry weight with the profession and might also provide food for thought and judgment of our procedures. It was thought that persons in frequent contact with the adult deaf might point flaws that educators, in their closeness to problems of the deaf as children, might have overlooked.

Taking these opinions as merely opinions and as possible guides for future study and thought, let us examine them and consider their implications toward school policy. A majority of those who replied stated that the deaf are not a class apart, that there is no typical deaf man and that characteristics are individual and a matter of degree. Three quotations will express the general attitude:

To begin with, I do not think there is such a thing as an average deaf person, although I use the term frequently. Each * * * I try to treat as an individual. The best one can say is that they are all human beings and subject to vagaries.

* * * but I cannot state that they are afflicted to a degree which is excessive of people in the various levels of intelligence.

The difference, then, is one of degree rather than of kind. And all generalizations, in the end, must be qualified.

With these qualifications, a variety of traits were named. Some of the traits most frequently mentioned will be listed below, with quotations which seemed to state the case most aptly. Discussion of possible remedies will accompany each.

Lack of a spirit of cooperation.—"Among the deaf, there is no question to the fact that the leaders are most often the targets of those less active and prominent, and without any cause whatever." "I do not feel that they are particularly cooperative. They can be taught to work with others who will help them. This they do not at present seem able to do."

One of the replies offered the following suggestion for combating this tendency: "I dare say that one of the greatest faults of the deaf is a lack of cooperation. I believe that the schools can and should

greatly overcome this failing, and the extracurricular activities at schools give a wonderful opportunity for this." Schools for the deaf do have a great variety of these extracurricular activities, but in some cases there is a tendency on the part of the staff to take over management of such activities to get them done—to save time and to have them done "well." There arises a question here as to whether the value of extracurricular activities lies in getting things done with the least possible trouble to a heavily burdened staff or in building leaders and intelligent followers.

Another point is suggested by the comment here quoted: "Their combative tendencies are often aggravated instead of minimized by group friction." What is it in the community life of the school that causes this friction and can it be turned to constructive account toward minimizing combativeness rather than aggravating it? Why is it that from the miniature community of the school there are so few group experiences that the pupils can carry over into the larger life of their communities out of school? Can it be that the cooperation exacted by the schools is not understood, nor its value realized, by the pupils?

Lack of initiative and self-reliance.—"They are very dependent, too much is done for them at school. Seldom does a deaf pupil have an opportunity to solve his own problems. I would prefer to have deaf pupils spend some time in doing this, even in preference to loss of some trade instruction." "Sheltered and protected and watched over most of the time during their formative years, they tend to lose initiative and self-reliance."

Two quotations seem to cover fairly well the school's part in developing these traits: "The opportunity to forge to the front through individual initiative is lacking. Usually the youth who possesses large initiative is constantly running afoul of 'rules,' and meeting with discipline for being 'out of line.' He is apt to grow bitter and suspicious of repressive authority." "Pupils of higher grades should be encouraged in student government because self-government permits them to think freely and decide for themselves; it helps to encourage cooperation among themselves as it would out in the world. Yes, govern themselves under school rules as they would govern themselves under the rules of a community in which they live."

Of course, in considering student government there will always arise problems of school administration, situations requiring mature judgment and questions of discipline. One correspondent offers an indictment of this attitude, saying, "They then return to their own artificial form of life, made artificial for ease of management." It is doubtless true that a too extensive student government would conflict with administrative routine and place in the hands of children problems requiring more mature judgment; but on the other hand, is it not possible to have a limited form of student government, concerned with the boys' and girls' problems that do not immediately affect school rules and administrative schedules?

Narrow-mindedness.—"The one thing I have deplored in the deaf as a group is lack of broad-mindedness. Seeing everything from the standpoint of their own unique situation, they have a tendency to expect that people in general ought to see things as they do." "I rarely find a deaf person who is tolerant of someone else's viewpoint. I would personally say they are very opinionated and that seldom are their

opinions their own." "If their education means anything, it should mean not alone ability to comprehend but to analyze and carry through with an open mind."

It would seem that the proper solution to this problem, the better way for children to learn to see situations aside from their own particular point of view, is to take them more into confidence and to have occasioned free discussions on problems of ethics. These discussions might be undertaken either by the classroom teachers or by the counseling staff. To bring the problems nearer home, why not discussions on school rules, disciplinary problems and problems of personal interest and antagonisms? It is natural for children to want to know the reasons for rules affecting themselves and it "aggravates their combative tendencies" to have to accept rules for which they do not understand the reasons. Participation in the solution of their own and others' problems should bring realization that every situation has two sides, and considerable educational benefit should carry over therefrom. Of course, it is vital that such discussions be under the direction of persons broadly tolerant and endowed with much tact.

Limited interests.—"The outstanding trait I notice of the average deaf man of the day is a trivial mental attitude. * * * A serious lecture or thoughtful talk is practically unknown here. * * * The deaf do not seem to care for reading and the average deaf man is unable to express himself with force or conviction on the news of the day. Above all, there is a lukewarmness to religion." "He (the immature product—drops out, et al.) will not read, sees no need of study, passes his time with others of his own level, recognizes no authority higher than his own opinions, and sneers at those from whom he might learn much if only he were capable of acquiring further education."

These views seem a bit extreme, considering all classes of the deaf and in face of the existence of literary clubs, dramatic societies, churches, welfare organizations, and the like. However, where there is smoke there must be some fire, and it would be well to consider the means of preventing its spread.

One way to meet such a situation would be to provide more intellectual opportunities and contacts in the schools. It is not the fault of the children that their interests are more or less confined to the fields of sports, movies, and the like if the major portion of their extra-classroom time is devoted to such interests and in many cases practically devoid of intellectual stimulation. Week ends, as a rule, are dead periods in mental stimulation. A good lecturer or story teller can provide better stimulation than the usual run of movies available. Too, counseling staffs are often too busy with policing duties to sit down and give the children the benefit of their companionship and wider experience. As to reading, a plentiful supply of good books, a librarian who understands the deaf and a dynamic program of stimulation to read will raise the level of reading interest. In the past it was the custom of most schools to have daily assemblies, of about 15 minutes' duration, devoted to "chapel talks," moral and educational lectures of an informal variety. The trend has been to abolish these talks and to transfer the time to classroom exercises. It remains a question which is the more profitable use of these 15 minutes a day. It is our belief that these talks are a worth-while use of time from the viewpoint of character building; aside from that, they would offer an

intellectual integration of the school and contact for all the children with the varied intellectual personalities of the school staff.

Charity.—"I hold from observation, that the former virtue of 'dislike for charity,' made into a slogan by organized deafdom in *The Deaf Do Not Beg*, has been broken down. * * * Hard times have apparently lowered the resistance of the deaf to ways of making money bordering on charity and begging." "I believe that the deaf generally dislike charity in its full sense, but many of them gladly receive it indirectly, even expect it."

A goodly number of those answering commented on the weakened resistance to charity in one form or another. However, practically all noted that this change is not confined to the deaf but seems to be universal and probably due to Government hand-outs. A discussion of this subject might easily be led into the realms of political and social theory, but it does seem that the schools might assume a duty to combat this trend and build the self-reliance and self-respect so dearly needed by the deaf. Such a program would tie in with efforts to build cooperation and social responsibility.

The traits below were not so frequently cited but seem to merit mention.

Defense mechanisms.—(A variety of traits mentioned might be put under this heading, and such has been the treatment here) "I think I could name one distinctive trait which, in my mind, is excessive. The tendency to brag. I would not call it vanity because it is the defensive reaction from an inferiority complex." "I have noted over the years that I have worked with the deaf that most of them feel superior to their jobs; many are inclined to believe themselves more capable than they have proved to be." "Most of them find employment not to their liking and with small pay. Not being able to get better pay through advancement they naturally get jealous over those who have risen above the average, thus resulting in suspicion, fault finding and knocking those above the average." I must admit, however, that the most pronounced characteristic of the general run of the deaf is that of undue suspicion. In some instances I have found it to amount to almost an obsession."

This is a broad question; causes of and compensations for a feeling of inferiority may arise from any number of situations. The causes are varied, but possibly one of the most often present is the difficulty in communication felt in various degrees by a large number of the deaf. The answer would seem to be more spontaneous and unsupervised contacts with normal children—parties and social gatherings to which public or high school children are asked, or throwing open the school playgrounds to children of the neighborhood at certain periods.

Lack of a feeling of social responsibility.—"I find that the majority of the deaf have what I call a surface politeness. They are courteous enough to you and yet they seldom show real consideration for your welfare; they do not realize how often they could save you time and energy." "The 'younger generation' from schools for the deaf are woefully lacking in appreciation or gratitude, expecting much without giving in return—not even an expression, in many cases." "However, I feel that the deaf are extremely self-centered; they seldom feel obligated to wholeheartedly assist others."

Is it not possible that deaf children, reared in an institution and their needs provided for by a process which they do not understand, grow up with the lack of social responsibility implied in the quotations above? Might not this situation of group living be turned to advantage in some way, possibly by bringing to their conscious knowledge the part they can play in solving problems of the school community and the obligations they have to the school, their fellow pupils, the staff, and the people of their State? How to instrument a program to further this awakening is the problem. Here again pupil government and the discussions on ethics noted previously might assist to an extent.

Lack of social poise.—"Lack of the common courtesies found in people of breeding and education." This might be due to not sufficiently frequent contacts with older persons who might serve as models, a too strict segregation of sexes and infrequent contacts with hearing children. The remedies are implied in the defects.

Emotional instability.—"Extremely susceptible to leadership, good or bad." "They are more susceptible to emotional appeals than to high-minded appeals." One touched at length on emotional instability and laid it to the difficulty of establishing satisfactory relationships with hearing people due to unsatisfactory lines of communication. "While I find many of them quick to resent things, I believe the resentment is more often inability to understand."

In regard to the cause of this, a quotation expresses the feeling well: "However, I do not think that the psychologists are mistaken when they advise us that any kind of physical abnormality, even big nose or ears, is likely to have repercussions in the region of what we may call the psyche. I am not surprised, therefore, that we find a certain percentage of psychopathic cases among the deaf. What does surprise me is that we find so few of them." This is a point well taken. In view of the psychological and social stresses created by deafness, it is actually surprising that the deaf adjust as well as they do. Hearing persons frequently remark at the cheerful manner in which the deaf accept their handicap; psychologists express surprise that the maladjustment is not greater. The schools may well take pride in this accomplishment, a great one, and they should strive to maintain it through bringing the children to face squarely the difficulties they must overcome and accept philosophically. This is a delicate proposition, though, for too much emphasis on limitations might well blight ambition; it would seem that the objective might best be accomplished by exposition of the difficulties which deaf men have successfully overcome. Talks by alumni and successful deaf men would seem to offer a useful tool here.

Intelligence.—One argument sent in does not deal with specific character traits, but nevertheless offer a pertinent point. "There is, perhaps, another characteristic which is even more potent, though we hate to recognize its existence. It is that the deaf as a group are about 10 points below the norm of society in intelligence as measured by scales created to measure normal society. This is something you and I have fought against accepting, because we felt it placed us in a subnormal class and because it seemed to make impossible in some ways the realization of our dreams for a better deaf citizenship, since only a few years back the I. Q. was supposedly constant. Now, how-

ever, evidence has been uncovered and broadcast by Dr. Pintner that the I. Q. is influenced by environment. Accepting the thesis that intelligence is the all-powerful force behind behavior, we can urge that schools for the deaf elevate, normalize, vitalize their environment so that a deaf child's I. Q. can more nearly approach normal after 10 years or so of schooling."

Clannishness.—"* * * the deaf have no specific characteristics different from those of hearing people other than suspicion and clannishness, and you might even boil it down to one since suspicion may be deduced to be an offshoot of clannishness." Characteristics included in the writer's definition of clannishness: "(1) extremely susceptible to leadership, good or bad; (2) deficient in social consciousness; (3) deficient in social responsibility; (4) deficient in breadth of interests."

Since the traits this writer mentions as components of clannishness are listed elsewhere in this paper, we shall pass it over with the comment that there might be both constructive and destructive clannishness when a minority group is concerned.

A majority of those replying concerned themselves with character traits considered bad. This may have been due to the tendency in criticism to stress points in need of improvement and to let the good deeds speak for themselves. However, several did mention desirable traits. These follow:

Good citizens.—"On the positive side, the deaf are by and large good citizens." "It seems to me that the deaf are less criminally inclined than persons who hear, but that is a question no one can answer off-hand. There are so few deaf in proportion, etc."

This is a most desirable trait, even if it be confined to the less positive phase of citizenship—obedience to the law. Probably the schools can claim credit for the trait, since they inculcate obedience and respect for authority early in life. Then let the schools hold to the line in this respect and also strive to add a comprehension of the reasons for the laws and a spirit that will initiate and co-operate in desirable civic improvements for their community. Emphasis of the community aspect of school life and more demands upon the resources and judgment of the pupils in managing their school affairs might aid in this effort.

Desire for group improvement.—"They are really desirous of improving their status as a group."

If such be the case, it should not be too difficult for the schools to implement this desire by showing that group improvement comes through cooperation, that personal improvement and success reflect well on the group, that undesirable traits discredit the group and that improvement, personal or group, is achieved through unrelenting effort. Means to accomplish these ends might be: Cooperation between the school and organized groups of the adult deaf (this cooperation would have to be mutual); biographical accounts of successful deaf persons, either in the classroom or in assembly lectures; illustration of concrete instances where undesirable traits in individuals have brought undesired reactions to groups.

Promptness.—"They are very prompt and are very seldom late for work. No doubt this is due to their institutional training."

This is another trait for which the schools may claim credit and which is worthy of being maintained. As an accompaniment it might

be well to reiterate constantly the reasons for promptness so that the children may better understand the value of this good habit.

Tolerance.—"I find them very tolerant as to race and creed."

Here again is a highly valued trait probably brought about by the environment of the school for the deaf. The deaf man's conception of race and creed seems to develop after he has formed the habit of associating with persons of varied races and creeds generally found in a school for the deaf. If environment can create tolerance in these controversial matters, might not the base be broadened to include the social and economic aspects of life as well?

In summary it may be said that the consensus of opinion was that the deaf do not differ greatly from the hearing—that personality traits are individual and complex, making it impossible to point to any single type and say, "This is the typical deaf man." What is true of the deaf seems to be true of the hearing of the same social status and degree of intelligence.

Still, there is that illusive something appearing in the deaf as a class, possibly a result of their school environment and their difficulties in communication, that seems to set them apart. How the schools can "elevate, normalize, and vitalize" their environment so as to minimize the element of differentiation is the problem.

The school for the deaf has an added responsibility in that it generally is a residential school, and thereby it also has an additional opportunity. Children in the public schools are subject to the varied environments of their homes, not always the best for character building. Schools for the deaf should make the most of the added hours at their disposal and strive for an ideal environment insofar as their facilities allow. From the arguments set forth in this paper it would seem that the schools could adapt their communal situation and the varied activities under their supervision so as to develop the traits in which deaf leaders of the deaf have found their products to be lacking. This would constitute a realization that the three R's are not the only responsibility of the schools; in fact, considering the whole educational situation and the social and economic difficulties of adult life for the deaf, character training might even be considered the major responsibility of the schools.

As one authority, Ada Hart Arlitt in her book, *Adolescent Psychology*, says, "Such problems * * * are rather the result of the pressure of society on the adolescent than a result of adolescence itself." Society in this case happens to be the school. And the school has jurisdiction over the children in their formative years and must bear, in large part, the responsibility of their actions as adults. Are the schools making the best use of their tools and accepting their full responsibility along the line of character molding?

APPENDIX

I

LETTER SENT TO DEAF LEADERS

We are preparing a paper for the section on social and character training at the meeting of the convention of American Instructors of the Deaf to be held in Fulton, Mo., this summer. May we ask your assistance in this effort?

The theme of the meeting is to be: "Molding educational opportunities for the deaf of tomorrow with the tools of today." Our paper is tentatively entitled,

"What of the Products?" In this paper we hope to evaluate the character training offered in schools for the deaf by presenting salient virtues and shortcomings of character among the products of the schools as seen by deaf leaders themselves. We are contacting about two dozen prominent leaders of the deaf and deaf men and women who have achieved notable success in the world of the hearing. It is our hope to reach a cross section of the deaf thereby. We shall then attempt, through enumerating pertinent replies, to suggest points wherein the schools are doing good work and wherein they might be improved.

In your years of association with the deaf you have no doubt formed some opinions about the "average" deaf man. Perhaps you have noted the scarcity of crimes among the deaf, their self-reliance, and dislike for charity. On the other hand, you must have noticed some unpleasant attitudes among the deaf, such as: A tendency to be suspicious, fault finding, naïveté and lack of tact, the habit of some of "knocking" those deaf men or women who have risen above the average. Of course these traits are merely examples and may not correspond with your judgment of the deaf; we list them only to indicate the type of problem we would like you to consider. Any comments or suggestions regarding the paper will be welcomed with thanks.

You have probably also formed opinions regarding schools for the deaf and their activities. Could you, from your association with deaf people, express yourself on the good work you consider the schools to be doing and where and how they could do more to overcome shortcomings in the characters of the deaf as you see them?

It is our intention to include in the paper the names of those contributing, but whatever quotations are made will be anonymous, so that your individual comments may be considered strictly confidential.

Your cooperation in this will be greatly appreciated.

Yours very truly,

II

Those contributing to the paper:

- Anderson, Dr. Tom L.—president, National Association of the Deaf; vocational principal, Iowa School for the Deaf.
 Cohen, Max—leader of the deaf in New Hampshire.
 Garrison, N. C.—owner of business; leader of deaf in Washington.
 Hajna, A. A.—assistant State bacteriologist; president, Baltimore Division, National Fraternal Society of the Deaf.
 Hansen, Mrs. Agatha T.—poetess, former teacher, and leader of the deaf; present residence, California.
 Howard, Mrs. Petra F.—State employment agent for deaf, Minnesota.
 Kenner, Marcus L.—former president of N. A. D.; leader and welfare worker for deaf, New York City; owns printing business.
 Northern, T. Y.—active in N. A. D.; owns printing business.
 Orman, James N.—supervising teacher in the Illinois School for the Deaf.
 Roberts, A. L.—national president, National Fraternal Society of the Deaf.
 Schowe, Ben M.—personnel officer, Firestone Tire and Rubber Co., Akron, Ohio.
 Williams, B. R.—vocational principal, Indiana School for the Deaf.
 Woods, Willard—publisher, Digest of the Deaf; residence, Massachusetts.
 Zimble, Nathan—principal, Arkansas School for the Deaf.

ART

- Leader: Geneva B. Llewellyn, Wisconsin School.
 Paper: And demonstration, "Marionettes," Lois T. Kelley, Missouri School.
 Paper: Picture study, Margaret E. Fitzpatrick, Indiana School.

MARIONETTES

(LOIS T. KELLEY, Missouri School)

I shall attempt to give you a brief history of marionettes.

Many persons are of the opinion that puppets are of recent origin. This, however, is not true. Puppets were first discovered over 2,000

years before Christ, in the ancient Egyptian tombs. These were small figures, carved of ivory, worked by the pulling of strings. This method of operation definitely classes them as marionettes.

Puppets of more recent date have been found throughout Europe and Asia. Marionettes were used by the Crusaders to depict Biblical stories in their underground cities, the catacombs. In Greece and Rome they were used at feasts and banquets given by royalty for the purpose of entertaining their guests. In ancient times, in Italy, before the written word, marionettes were handed down from one generation to the next, thus preserving legends such as that of Roland and Charlemagne. Marionette shows were popular in both France and Spain. They were much used in England during the time of Shakespeare. Even in America, marionettes are not new. Wooden figures, moved by the pulling of strings, were used by the Hopi Indians in their ceremonial dances.

In America today, in our schools, the use of marionettes has developed into a valuable and educational activity for children. They are being used throughout the country to stimulate interest in play-writing, language, history, speech, sewing, handicraft, stage setting, art, and design.

I believe the use of marionettes for the deaf child does much toward development of imagination. The coordination of detailed planning and accurate manipulation is the test of successful marionette performance.

Now, I would like to tell you of our experiences with marionettes.

Perhaps you will be interested in hearing how we became interested in this particular work.

Every fall the State Teachers Association, of which we are all members, meets either in Kansas City or St. Louis. Mr. Ingle, our superintendent, attended a meeting held in Kansas City. While there he saw a display and performance of Hazelle's marionettes. He immediately purchased a set for our school and brought them back to us, and from then on we have been enthusiastic marionette lovers.

The theater which you see here was made in the woodworking department under the direction of Mr. Coats. The paint job was carried out in the paint shop. It was then brought to our department. The decorations, the curtains, and so forth, were made by the advanced art students.

After a great deal of preparation we were ready for our initial performance. So, Cinderella was presented in our school chapel for the children and the school family. It was a success. Repeated performances were given for the grade children of the Fulton public-school system, as a floor show for the Rotary Club and chamber of commerce banquets, and then was featured on our commencement-day program.

Cinderella is also preserved for future entertainment in moving pictures belonging to the school.

Time marches on. Little Red Riding Hood, a comedy act, and Jack and the Beanstalk were our next performances. These also were given before groups other than our deaf children.

In Little Red Riding Hood it was necessary to make two wolves. One to encounter Little Red Riding Hood as she came through the

woods with her basket and bunch of flowers, the other dressed as the grandmother in her bed. We used modeling clay to shape the wolf heads on the marionette bodies. A piece of wax paper was placed over the marionette features, then clay modeled on this to resemble a wolf head.

When this was dry we covered the whole head with gray cotton flannel. Ears were made of the gray material and sewed in place. A piece of bright red cambric made the tongue. The gray material was used to cover the marionette's hands and feet to resemble the animal's paws. One wolf was dressed in blue trousers and long-tailed orange coat. The other wolf wore lace-trimmed nightie and cap to resemble the grandmother.

Could you have heard the children's squeals when this wolf jumped out of grandmother's bed and frightened Little Red Riding Hood, you, too, would feel fully repaid for all the previous hours of work.

Before Jack and the Beanstalk was presented we went through another period of preparation.

The giant we made of corncobs. For the head, hands, and shoes we used unbleached muslin. His mustache was made of raffia and sewed on after the head was stuffed. Linotype metal was used as weights in his shoes. Green paper was used for the beanstalks and beans. The leaves were made of crepe paper. The cow, the money bag, and table were soon ready for rehearsals.

The comedy act, consisting of a clown and donkey, was put on by one boy. He made the wooden donkey in our toy shop; also all the accessories needed in this act.

In working with marionettes, plan details very carefully. Try to get along without making changes in the acting. This confuses the manipulators.

All of our audiences for our marionette shows have been most appreciative. This adds a great deal to the pride and joy of the manipulators. Finally—let me repeat this—a great deal of time, thought, and patience must be given to preparing a successful marionette production.

PICTURE STUDY

(MARGARET E. FITZPATRICK, Indiana School)

Picture study is rapidly becoming an important factor in education. The United States Office of Education, Washington, D. C., reports that practically every American city is now making use of some form of picture study in its educational system. This is an age in which our schools are placing more and more stress upon developing in our children a love and appreciation for the beautiful. In order that our future citizens may spend their leisure time doing the more uplifting things, we realize that during childhood and adolescence they must be taught to understand and appreciate the better things of life.

We know that comparatively few children in our art classes can acquire a talent for art, but it is possible to cultivate in nearly every

child a taste for good pictures. Art in the schoolroom should be for life's sake, and I believe that our courses of study in art should be flexible so that this ideal may be more fully realized.

Art has long been classed with literature and music as a subject for appreciation and enjoyment based on understanding. Since the deaf child can enjoy only two of these fine arts, namely, literature and art, I cannot emphasize too greatly our responsibility as art teachers to develop this phase of each child's education. If all that is best in literature is finding its way into our schoolrooms, all that is best in art should also have a place there. Our deaf children have a right to the inheritance of the race, and it is our duty as teachers to strive to develop in them a love for the best things that have been done and are being done in the great world of art.

Intelligent picture study has many functions which tend to give to education a fuller, richer, and better understanding of life, both in its realities and mysteries. The history of life and the history of art are inseparable, and the child comes to realize that the art of a race expresses its ideals, its history, and its degree of civilization.

Picture study is important because of the enjoyment that comes through an understanding and appreciation of great pictures. It is said that "time passes quickly when the mind is well occupied." Have you ever noticed how much more you planned to get done in an art-appreciation period than you were able to accomplish? Children naturally have a love for pictures and a desire for understanding them. Many times a child who has been impressed by a picture-study lesson will afterward bring a friend who has missed the study to the art room and ask to have shown a certain picture, or he may take the time of the teacher and pupils in another class to talk to them about an interesting picture. And why not? We discuss a new book or friend that we have learned to know. Picture study can be, and should be, made just as vital a study as any other.

We teachers have been accused of filling the minds of our pupils with information that is of no particular benefit to them. There is no study better adapted to teaching the child to think for himself than picture study. It always arouses the child's interest, gives him something to talk about, to ask questions about, and to think about, and this interest may lead to inspiration. Pictures are thought provoking to the degree of understanding and appreciation of the individual. There is no limit to appreciation. Once a child is inspired, he does his own research and his own thinking. He has formed a habit of creative thinking in the terms of art elements, and he will be able to discriminate in his choice of pictures as well as desiring to possess some of them.

Picture study makes for the development of character as well as mere enjoyment. The child comes to realize more fully that art is the expression of man's inward self. By becoming acquainted with the lives of the artists he learns of the hardships and joys each one experienced and he may even choose an ideal, or one that he may admire very much. He may even pattern his technique and subjects after the great masters when he has the opportunity for expression. This develops confidence in the child and creates a desire for better

work. It makes for a finer appreciation and understanding and a desire for more learning.

Especially important at this troubled time in the world's history, the study of great masterpieces contributed by the artists of all nations tends to promote world friendship, international goodwill, and a realization of the brotherhood of man. Such study develops an interest in the lives of people in different countries and in their contributions to our present-day civilization. The child learns that the children and people of all nations are very much like himself, doing the things he himself likes to do and living in much the same way. A sympathetic understanding of the aims and ideals of the peoples of other lands leads to respect for their rights and an appreciation of their contributions to the common good. Hence a feeling of brotherhood and world friendship results.

A study of the great religious masterpieces may have a religious influence upon the lives of our pupils. Most of our deaf children have less opportunity for the development of their religious life than their hearing brothers have, and I have found that as a whole religious pictures have more fascination for the children than any other class of pictures. Hoffman's *Christ in Christ and the Doctors* is a very real person to the children in the intermediate grades. A study of DaVinci's *The Last Supper* is without doubt more than a study for the high-school student who realizes that the question foremost in the mind of each disciple, namely, "Lord, is it I?" is most surely being asked of him also. The possibilities gained through association with masterpieces are limitless. The more things the child learns to know and enjoy the more complete and full will be, for him, the joy of living.

We may study pictures from two different standpoints, both of which have their individual appeal. For example, if the purpose of our study is to enlarge our knowledge of facts in relation to history, language, literature, science, or geography, the study will be mainly a search for detail, to enlarge the mental picture already formed by means of words. Take the pictures of Longfellow and his home. Here we have the facts of his appearance, and the facts of his house. A knowledge of them makes the idea of his personality more vivid to us and gives us a background of his life. He becomes a living personality and we catch a glimpse of his mind from which flowed so easily, so rhythmically the verse that we love so well. When we read his poem *The Village Blacksmith* and at the same time look at a picture of it, our imagination is stimulated and our pleasures are increased. This approach to picture study is most generally used by the classroom teacher in correlation with her regular school work, but it is very much worth while and may create in the child a love for good pictures and an interest in them that could not be gained through other avenues.

Most of us art teachers, however, are more interested in studying pictures from the artist's point of view, in order to get the message the painter desired to give us. The artist, in order to create a picture must have had some great enthusiasm, idea, vision, or thought of beauty. This he has attempted to express so that others may share

his joy. We fail to understand him if we limit our vision to that which is perfectly obvious. We must catch the thrill. This is the study of pictures from the artist's viewpoint and somehow we must get it across to the children in our schools if they are to learn appreciation.

If you will pardon a personal example, I will relate how I had this brought to a full realization in my mind. The art teacher entered the room after the class had assembled, walked to the front of the room, paused, and when she had the undivided attention of every pupil in the class she recited in a quiet and beautiful manner:

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea,
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

"Now," she said, "you may go, find materials, and bring to class tomorrow your picture of the stanza I have just given you." The results were very gratifying. Each and every pupil had an entirely different picture. We had had an inspiration, a vision, and it was an enjoyable experience to try to get that vision in concrete form. Thus we experienced in our own minds the vision and enthusiasm of an artist but, of course, lacked the skill to adequately express that vision so that others might understand and appreciate it.

The primary aim in every picture-study lesson should be to develop in the children a love and a taste for good pictures. They should become familiar with the names, nationalities, and interesting facts in the lives of the artists whose pictures are being studied. They should be taught that the most authentic record of the life of a people is found in its works of art, and that the art of a race is the visible expression of its ideals.

There are a variety of opinions regarding the manner of teaching picture study. Some think that the story of the picture is the most important; others emphasize the life of the artist; and still others stress the technique and art principles employed. Personally, I like to make use of all of these phases and adapt the lessons to the interests and mentality of the class. I believe that, successfully to teach a picture, the teacher must first appreciate the picture herself. She should give just enough detail to arouse the pupil's interest and encourage him to proceed with the study. The teacher should not talk too much about a picture at one time, but should present it again at a later date and have the child talk about it.

In order that the study of pictures may mean the most to the children, pictures should be considered in relation to the childrens' activities. For example, in the study of Indian life there are many excellent paintings interpreting the life of the American Indian. Likewise in their studies of Holland, Japan, etc. Seasonal pictures should be considered at the proper time of the year. Spring, fall, and winter pictures are enjoyed most during their proper season of the year. Likewise Thanksgiving, Christmas, Mother's Day, Easter, and patriotic days all have beautiful masterpieces about them and if they are presented near these days they mean much more to the children. We must bear in mind that enthusiasm and willingness to consider pictures are our first requisites to the enjoyment and love of them.

In the lower primary grades it is enough if the children enjoy the picture and show some enthusiasm when the picture is being talked about. The upper primary children may be taught the name of the artist and a few interesting facts concerning his life and country. They may also talk about the colors in terms of their knowledge of color, and if the picture has an interesting and appealing story for children of their age the study will be made more enjoyable if the teacher tells them the story.

Advanced grades have more knowledge of art principles and these pupils should have their attention directed to the application the artist has made of these principles. Note how the space has been filled; by what means the artist has called attention to the center of interest; rhythm of line and color; variety in space divisions; subordination or elimination of unimportant details; the balance of light, dark, and color; the technique the artist has used; and any other art principles the artist has employed. These students should become acquainted with the life and style of the artist, understand the inspiration that stimulated him to paint the picture, and the interesting facts regarding the picture itself. Different children attain different degrees of appreciation but a wise teacher will employ the methods best suited to her individual pupils and hope to attain the best possible degree of understanding.

It will be wise to remember the Arabian proverb, "The eye is blind to what the mind does not see." I believe that we must apply to the teaching of art the same pedagogical intelligence, the same common sense, and the same preparation that is applied to the teaching of language, mathematics and the sciences.

SECTION FOR DEAF TEACHERS

Leader: G. C. Farquhar, Missouri School.

Paper: Professional Preparation and Advancement of Deaf Teachers, Irving S. Fushfeld, dean, Gallaudet College.

Paper: Professional Advancement of Deaf Teachers Attending Universities, Frederick A. Moore, Ohio State School.

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION AND ADVANCEMENT OF DEAF TEACHERS

(IRVING S. FUSFELD, dean, Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.)

A consideration of the problem of the preparation and advancement of the deaf teacher must of necessity wait upon such questions as these: Do conditions indicate a need for the deaf teacher? If so, is the need a sporadic or a stable need? To what extent has the need been a fluctuating one? Happily, the answers to these questions are at hand. All we need do is turn to the following simple figures, indicating the ratio of deaf teachers to the total number of teachers in public residential schools for the deaf in the United States. We are here leaving out the public day schools as well as the private and denominational schools, since the number of deaf teachers on the staffs of these schools is negligible. We find as follows:

TABLE I.—*Proportion of instructors in residential schools who were deaf persons*

Year:	Percent
1915.....	18.3
1920.....	18.6
1925.....	19.3
1930.....	18.8
1935.....	19.8
1940.....	19.8

We have taken these figures from successive issues of the January number of the *Annals*. We may note here these essential points:

1. For the present it appears that one out of every five teachers of the deaf is a deaf person.

2. The demand for the deaf teacher seems to indicate an established need, that is, it has not declined over a period of the past 25 years—a pretty good test of the permanence of the need. As a matter of fact, the trend seems to be one of increase. This becomes more significant when one considers the present-day emphasis on oral teaching in our schools, the rising tide in enrollment of hard-of-hearing children, and the enormously accelerated interest in auricular work in our schools.

Having established the fact that there is a continuing demand for deaf teachers, our next query is, What is the source of supply? Though there are no precise figures at hand, we know it to be true that the residential schools at times take up graduates of their own, particularly where special talent has been shown in vocational lines. Sometimes graduates are employed for supervision and then reach the rank of classroom teachers. But by far the great bulk of deaf teachers in our residential schools are graduates of Gallaudet College. With this acknowledged we must now turn to an arrangement of tabular information to determine the relation between Gallaudet College and the demand for deaf teachers. The questions that arise here are, first, To what extent is the college a teacher-supplying agency? and, second, To what extent is the college providing the necessary training and preparation for those of its graduates who obtain appointment in our residential schools?

Going back for the past 25 years, we made careful check of each succeeding graduating class, excluding the normal department for hearing men and women, and determined the number in each class who at one time or another found employment as instructors in our residential schools for the deaf. In this number we counted only those for whom we had knowledge as to their subsequent activity, and for this reason our information must be regarded as having a lean toward the conservative. Nor did we include those who obtained teaching places even before they graduated from Gallaudet College.

Our table as finally constructed gives the following data: The number in each graduating class, the number obtaining teaching positions, the percentage this was in each class, and the number of men and women, respectively, who obtained places. (The final column indicates information we have already considered, namely, the ratio of deaf to hearing instructors.)

TABLE II.—*Proportion of graduates of Gallaudet College who received positions as instructors*

Year	Number in graduating class	Number obtaining places in schools	Percent of class	Men	Women	Percent of instructors in residential schools who were deaf
1915	8	3	37.5	2	1	18.3
1916	18	6	33.3	3	3	
1917	11	7	63.6	4	3	
1918	18	6	33.3		6	
1919	13	3	23.1	1	2	
1920	12	9	75.0	5	4	18.6
1921	17	6	35.3	4	2	
1922	10	6	60.0	3	3	
1923	17	6	35.3	5	1	
1924	15	11	73.3	8	3	
1925	13	7	53.9	3	4	19.3
1926	11	3	27.3	1	2	
1927	20	16	80.0	12	4	
1928	18	12	66.7	5	7	
1929	11	6	54.6	3	3	
1930	20	8	40.0	4	4	18.8
1931	18	12	66.7	7	5	
1932	20	14	65.0	7	7	
1933	15	11	73.3	4	7	
1934	23	15	65.2	8	7	
1935	20	7	35.0	4	3	19.8
1936	23	11	47.8	6	5	
1937	14	10	71.4	6	4	
1938	13	8	61.5	6	2	
1939	18	10	55.6	8	2	
1940	26	15	57.7	10	5	19.8
Total	422	228	54.0	124	104	
Average	16.2	8.8	53.5	4.8	4.0	

Examination of Table II reveals a number of telling points.

1. Out of 422 graduates in the 25-year period between 1915 and 1940, 228, or 54.0 percent, were called back into the schools to serve as teachers of deaf children. This does not mean that all of that number remained in their appointments over an extended period of time. The point to remember is that despite marriage among the women, or the lure of more promising employment elsewhere, or occasional dismissal, the graduates of Gallaudet College continue to be sought as instructors. We have no figures available as to other colleges, particularly teachers colleges, but we have the impression that the above proportion is high.

2. The trend, however, is not a uniform one. The table, according to the different years, indicates a fluctuation, with a tendency to recurring cycles. Thus, in the period 1915 and 1916, the percentages were 37.5 and 33.3, followed by a rise to 63.6 in 1917, which, in turn, was followed by a recession to 33.3 and 23.1 percents in 1918 and 1919. This tendency toward "waves" with successive "crests" and "troughs" points to a periodic rise and decline in the demand for deaf teachers. The "crown" of the current "wave" apparently was felt in 1937 when 71.4 percent of the senior class became teachers, to be followed successively in 1938, 1939, and 1940 by 61.5, 55.6, and 57.7 percents.

3. It is known, of course, that women teachers far outnumber men teachers in our schools for the deaf. Thus, in 1940-41, in the residential schools, the proportion was only some 30 percent of the latter. (Total number of instructors, 2,131—women, 1,498; men, 633.) But our table indicates that among the graduates of Gallaudet College

who become teachers, actually more men are sought, in the ratio of 119 men to 100 women; that is, a deaf man actually has a greater chance for placement. How far this tendency will be affected by present national defense and war conditions is to be seen. In this connection it may be noted that in the period 1915 to 1920 (the World War period) the ratio of choice was 15 men to 18 women. Whether this tendency will reappear in the current situation will soon be apparent.

4. It should be noted that the only interruption to the steadily increasing demand for graduates of Gallaudet College occurred in the year 1930; that is, in what may be called the first year of the Nationwide depression. This may be suggestive of a correlation with what happens to the deaf in other vocational fields in such times.

We turn now to a consideration of the teaching preparation of deaf teachers. In the case of those who return to the schools as instructors immediately upon, or later after, graduation from those schools it is obvious there can be little they possess in knowledge of the techniques and psychology of school work, tools which modern education demands as essential preparation for the teacher. The main recommendation in such cases is a special skill or talent along vocational lines, but here again the vigorous protest of our vocational leaders is that trades teaching should be in every sense an enterprise to which the school must bring to bear every resource of trained teaching skill. We have long since left behind us the day when all that was necessary of a trades teacher was that he be a good shop man.

Since it has been seen that our residential schools recruit a large share of their deaf teachers from the ranks of Gallaudet College graduates, we are now ready for the question: To what extent does the college, aside from its attention to the normal department for hearing men and women, serve as a teacher-training institution? To this question we have a specific and positive answer.

Seeking still to maintain that curricular balance by which it may continue as a liberal arts college, the authorities of Gallaudet College have long recognized the fact that so many of its graduates find placement as teachers in schools for the deaf, and have made what we regard as active provision for that fact. For instance, in the past, if a school sought an instructor in physical education, it was regarded as ample recommendation if a young man was a star on the football or basketball teams at the college. Now the schools may have teacher prospects who over their years at Gallaudet have had a full and varied activities program, courses in hygiene and first aid, in psychology, educational psychology, and principles of teaching, in physical education theory and physical education administration, comprising lectures and practice sessions in actual management of student groups under skilled supervision. By this correlated program of preparation, the college feels it is sending back into the schools capable and enthusiastic young men and women who are prepared to deal understandingly with the problems of young growing deaf boys and girls.

Do superintendents seek for their schools capable instructors of home economics and the household arts? We have them in the graduating classes of Gallaudet College, and we have every confidence they can step into such places open in the schools and meet every requirement. We have that feeling because our course of study provides our young women with a broad, varied, and intensive schedule

of work that begins almost from the day they enter, a course comprising drawing and design, clothing—both theory and construction, foods and nutrition—again both theory and practice, household decoration, principles of dietetics, applied design—that is handicrafts—and family relationships. For their pedagogy they have psychology, educational psychology, principles of teaching and methods of teaching home economics, all of which is capped, for those who wish it, by teaching practice in the Kendall School.

The program follows a similar specialized schedule for those of our students who may wish to become teachers of printing, or who wish to do library work in our schools. A great deal of attention is paid also to shaping the course of study for those who may find places in the academic departments of our schools. In addition to the usual portions of the formal course of study in English, mathematics, sciences and the cultural studies, such students take the work in psychology and pedagogy, along with work in special remedial teaching in English, and mathematics, under a carefully directed program, and special classes in the Kendall School.

In this connection our students face difficulty in making a choice of preparation. When a student is especially interested in teaching printing, the choice is a simple one. But he cannot be certain there will be a demand for such a teacher when he has completed his college course. In self-protection he may attempt preparation to become a teacher also in physical education, or in the academic subjects; and in the case of the young women the attempt is also often at multiple preparation, loading with courses in home economics, library work, physical education and business practice. This multiple effort, however, may give these students a broader degree of utility when placed as teachers in the schools.

Do our students themselves indicate a feeling for teaching? During the past year we had an opportunity to poll the sophomore class as to choice of career. Out of 26 students in this group, 14 indicated they were shaping choice of their courses toward preparation for teaching, and, oddly enough, this represents approximately the same percentage who on graduating do find placement as teachers.

Another condition encountered is that at times a graduate at the college has been assured a place in the school from which he originally came, or that a school cannot very well choose a new teacher from another State if the graduating class has available one from the same State.

Progressive school policy now demands that staff members keep educationally on the go; teachers are now expected to keep up with changing educational trends, with new methods, with the results of experimenting and investigation of school work. Professional reading is expected, and in this area the deaf teacher should find no handicap if he has already acquired some acquaintance with the foundations of pedagogy and psychology. But there is increasing pressure that teachers continue professional advancement while in service, mainly by attendance at summer sessions in college study and in post-graduate study. As a partial meeting of this need, Gallaudet College has in recent years arranged for periodic summer sessions. It also has been convincingly demonstrated that deaf teachers can make excellent students in advanced study at the accredited centers of higher learn-

ing. To cite only a few instances, we have the example set by such men as Byron B. Burnes at the University of Chicago, Kelly H. Stevens at Louisiana State University, Boyce R. Williams at Teachers College, Columbia University; James T. Flood at Ohio State University, Francis C. Higgins at Rutgers University, and Bernard Teitelbaum at the University of Pittsburgh. Of course, the effort expended by these deaf teachers meant a good deal in labor, time, and expense, but they have proved deaf teachers can carry advanced study successfully.

But what is the inducement for a deaf teacher to go to all the trouble for further study and improvement? The first answer is that some people just naturally seek to better themselves intellectually or to improve so they can do a better job, regardless of whether or not it means more pay. These are the people who have the real missionary spirit, people who just naturally want to give their all to help others. This feeling is just as true of the deaf man or woman as with anyone else.

Just the same, sheer reality asks for some recognition of going to the trouble of extra study. It takes money, time, and work, and there is no evidence that the deaf teacher is too highly paid for his services.

In recent years a system of certifying teachers has come into effect. This system has become so important that in some State schools a teacher cannot get or hold his or her place unless he has a teacher's certificate issued by the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf. These certificates, as you know, are of different grades, classes A, B, and C, in that order of importance. In a few schools the rule now is that only teachers who hold a class A certificate can be appointed. In others none with a class C certificate can be accepted. In other schools the salary scale depends on which grade of certificate a teacher has.

How about the deaf teacher? There has been a good deal of feeling on this matter, because of a regulation set by the conference that graduates of Gallaudet College are eligible only for the class B certificate. The regulation operates along this idea. To get a class A certificate the applicant must have had 4 years of study in an accredited college or university and, in addition, 1 year of special normal training to teach the deaf. Realizing that Gallaudet College is unique as an institution of higher learning and realizing also that a year of special normal training to teach the deaf is not easily available to deaf persons, the conference reached a compromise decision. It decided that since Gallaudet College does not have accredited standing as a college, the conference was willing to accept its course as the equivalent of that of the junior college—that is, normally a 3-year accredited course. Subtracting 1 year to account for the year of special normal training to teach the deaf—on the assumption that a deaf student, having spent so much time in the atmosphere of a school for the deaf, is well versed in how to deal with deaf children—the graduate of Gallaudet thus qualifies for the class B certificate, which calls for 2 years of accredited college study and 1 year of special normal training.

This leaves us with a problem on our hands. A young deaf man or woman, recently out of college, has no particular quarrel with the rule as set forth above. But the graduate who has been out in the work for a long period of time—15, 20, or more years of good, hard service—

sometimes reaching the position of principal or supervising teacher, still finds he is eligible only for the class B certificate, while a young hearing woman, fresh out of college and a normal course to teach the deaf, walks off with a class A certificate.

That is the problem.

I hope I have not given too gloomy a picture. There is much of hope in the situation. I have shown there seems to be a real need for the deaf teacher, possibly because the deaf teacher is naturally understanding of the task of teaching deaf children. I have also shown that the deaf teacher, if he or she is a graduate of Gallaudet College, has had the opportunity to obtain the necessary and, we think, satisfactory training to become a skilled and capable teacher. I have shown the deaf teacher can satisfactorily do the work required for postgraduate study in varied fields.

As for the advancement of the deaf teacher to a place in our schools where he or she is on the same standing as the hearing teacher—academic, vocational, or special—that is a challenge for you deaf teachers, as individuals and as a group, to deal with. What can be done with this problem rests in final analysis with you yourselves.

PROFESSIONAL ADVANCEMENT OF DEAF TEACHERS ATTENDING UNIVERSITIES

(FREDERICK A. MOORE, Ohio State School)

The great majority of deaf teachers of the deaf believe in the continuous improvement of educational standards of their profession and are always in favor of growth of self-service.

There are several ways by which this growth can be realized. Among them are summer and evening schools, local teachers' meetings, State and national conventions. All these have their varying degrees, differing forms, and purposes to make some contribution to improved teacher output, whether it be in improved classroom instruction, larger social outlook, greater cultural appreciation, growing professional consciousness, or, more probably, a composite of all.

Three requisites on the part of the teacher are necessary if any of these activities are to contribute to teacher improvement. They are teacher readiness, teacher participation, and teacher application. These principles apply to the teacher just as she expects them to apply to her pupils in their pursuit of educational growth.

The teachers of the deaf are fortunate in the existence of Gallaudet College, the leading exponent of all that is best in the advancement of teacher training for the deaf. Its research department, under the direction of Prof. Irving S. Fushfeld, a scientist in his own right, is probably one of the best in the country relating to the scientific investigation of problems of educating the deaf. Its normal department is too well known to need comment. In addition to that department, opportunity is also afforded its deaf students to train themselves to become teachers. Summer schools are also occasionally held there to enable deaf teachers to acquire further training. It keeps in step with the ever-changing trends in education. A new course, Problems in the Education of the Deaf and Hard of Hearing, has recently been included in its curriculum.

It would be a great privilege for deaf teachers seeking self-growth to be able to attend Gallaudet whenever the need is felt, but since that is impossible, the next best resource is a college or university for hearing students. These places of learning are widely scattered and within the reach of all, and most of them offer courses in the field of special education, covering all types of exceptional children. They also have basic courses in elementary and secondary education which many of the teachers of our schools will find to be of particular value. The proximity of the universities is an inducement, an opportunity for those of our teachers seeking educational growth.

Many of the universities are State supported, and, since the residential schools for the deaf are financed from the same source, there is the possibility our schools may be able to secure tuition-fee exemptions for their teachers. The Ohio School enjoys this privilege, and we see no reason why the other residential schools should not be accorded the same concession in their own States.

Some States, like Ohio, require certification as a prerequisite to entrance into the teaching profession. The Ohio certification plan makes provision for granting 1-year temporary, 4-year provisional, 8-year, and permanent (life) certificates, each requiring a certain number of credit-hours in educational courses, or the possession of a bachelor's or master's degree from an accredited university. Teachers not having the necessary number of hours are permitted to teach under a 1-year temporary certificate with the stipulation they secure a stated number of credits within the year. If they succeed, they are granted a 4-year provisional certificate. Additional credit-hours are then required before application can be made for an 8-year professional certificate. After 5 years of successful teaching experience under the 8-year certificate, a permanent certificate is granted, subject to the approval of the teacher's superintendent. Teachers holding permanent certificates are protected by a tenure law.

The Ohio school is fortunate in its location, within easy reach of Ohio State University. Most of its teachers, both deaf and hearing, avail themselves of the opportunity to improve themselves at the university. It has within its confines all the tools necessary for specialization, and there is a wide diversification of elective courses in its several colleges. The courses are classified into two groups, undergraduate and graduate. A master's degree from Gallaudet is evaluated as equivalent to a bachelor's from a regular college. It entitles the holder to enter the graduate school. The courses carry from one to five credits, depending upon the number of recitation periods required. The teachers attend during their free school periods, or in the evenings, or during the summer.

In most instances the courses are not too difficult for the deaf. Class attendance requiring dependence upon notes or interpreters is of little value. Much better results can be secured by studying outside of classes with weekly conferences with the class professors. A reference list of the necessary readings for the particular course is usually furnished the student, and the professors are usually glad to specify one or more each week. Written weekly reports covering the specified readings are as a rule required. This procedure naturally demands much more work but if one knows the university libraries and applies himself to the task it is not difficult.

Since the deaf student is compelled to depend almost entirely upon himself, outside-class reading is much better than unreliable class notes or second-hand information secured through interpreters. Also, because of the very fact the individual is obliged to depend upon his own initiative, he will be able to secure more benefit from the course than he would otherwise.

At the end of the term the deaf student takes his final examinations with the others of his class. The average class, sometimes as many as a hundred, is composed of all types—men and women of different races, young and old, a few above the average university intelligence and others the very opposite. But, as always, the large majority have mentalities like those of most of us. This fact relieves the deaf student and lends him a measure of self-confidence. Occasionally he may find himself seated with below-average students on each side, both of different races. In that case he will have difficulty in completing his examinations within the prescribed time. He will mostly find himself studying with mild interest the backs of two heads between him and his paper, and will be unable to write much until those heads remove themselves.

Social contacts of a friendly nature with the hearing students are few and far between. Naturally, much depends upon the deaf student himself. But usually the nature of his work, which is mostly outside of class among the books of the university libraries, gives him little opportunity to make the acquaintance of others. His conferences with his professors enable him to become well acquainted with them, and occasionally warm friendships spring up between them.

Professors are human. Most of them have a mistaken notion as to the capabilities of the deaf to read the lips. Not infrequently they inquire if the deaf student can read the lips. If given a negative answer, they seem surprised and reluctantly resort to the old reliable pad and pencil. But occasionally there are a few who will insist the student can read the lips if he would only try. It may not be amiss to recite here an incident concerning a woman professor of this type.

One of our especially intelligent deaf teachers, who, albeit, was like most of us a poor lip reader, chose a course under this particular professor. It so happened she had had previous experience with natural lip readers. Knowing no better, she was under the impression that all the deaf were as good. She refused the student permission to study outside class in lieu of attending lectures and oral discussions, and, in spite of his vehement protestations, placed him in the front row, the better to observe her lips. Luckily this student had a good mind. He did considerable reading outside which enabled him to pass. But to his chagrin the teacher claimed all the credit. Fortunately this case is an exception. Most professors are considerate. They recognize the handicaps of the deaf and do all they can to assist them.

But, regardless of everything, much depends upon the individual. Indifference or cynicism in his attitude toward the course of study will produce no constructive result, even if the course is one of the best. Nothing can be learned from it if the student accepts it with the advance mental reservation that no good is to come out of it. A receptive frame of mind must reinforce background experience if the course is effectively to serve its purpose.

Approached in a receptive frame of mind, interpreted in terms of personal experience for reality, and applied under the motive of better teaching, the ideas garnered in a course may provide abundant suggestion for improvement in teaching. Whether or not that possibility is realized rests with the individual. Regardless of the college or university, Gallaudet or any other, the concepts of the best educational leaders and thinkers are effective for the teacher only as they become an integral part of his own philosophy and resulting procedures. A new technique will assume convincing reality only as it is fairly applied and accurately appraised in the light of the individual's own conviction.

GENERAL SESSION, WEDNESDAY MORNING, JUNE 25

Auditorium, Advanced School Building, 11 A. M.

Presiding: J. Lyman Steed, superintendent, Oregon School.

Address: Mental Hygiene and the Teacher, Dr. Park J. White, professor of clinical pediatrics, Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.

Address: The Challenge to Leadership, Dr. Tom L. Anderson, president of the National Association of the Deaf.

The Wednesday morning general session convened at 11 a. m. in the auditorium of the Advanced School Building, Mr. J. Lyman Steed presiding.

Mr. STEED. Without any further delay I am going to introduce the first speaker of the morning, Dr. Park J. White, who is instructor in clinical pediatrics in the medical school of Washington University in St. Louis. He is also State cochairman of the Academy of Pediatrics. I am very glad to introduce him and have him talk to us at this time.

MENTAL HYGIENE AND THE TEACHER

(Dr. PARK J. WHITE, co-chairman, Academy of Pediatrics, Missouri, and professor of clinical pediatrics, Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.)

Here, I admit, is a prosaic title for a subject demanding all the imagination, if not poetry, which we can bring to it. I can best begin by repeating the familiar remarks of Prof. George Herbert Palmer, of Harvard, in his admirable essay on trades and professions. Here he shows what the great professions have in common, in contradistinction to the trades, actuated as they are by the profit motive.

Every sound professional man, every sound teacher, at least, is engaged in his work for the fun of the thing. Teaching has suited me better the longer I have taught. Many years ago I wrote that Harvard College pays me for doing what I would gladly pay it for allowing me to do. And this was only a vivacious statement of the general principle that the compensation of the professional man is measured by his inner outgo, and not like the tradesman's by his external income. So one becomes a painter because he wants to paint, a teacher because he wants to practice his delicate art of impartation. "To this end was I born, and for this cause came I into the world, said the greatest of teachers.

"The greatest of teachers"—please note that tribute from one of them—that tribute to a young rabbi brought up in a carpenter shop, engaged in what we should call adult education, whose clientele were unlettered fishermen and countryfolk, who was a master story teller, and who lived everything he taught.

Permit me a final word from Professor Palmer—this time a word of caution:

Many men, and still more women, take up teaching for a brief season, not through any taste or fitness for it, but because they find in it the readiest means of support. They frequently work hard, are entirely frank in acknowledging their purpose, and should not be lightly condemned. Necessity is laid pitifully upon them. Only, let us not confuse them with what they are not. They are not representatives of our arduous profession. Excellence does not approach their classroom, and they are probably responsible for the low scale of salaries. As transient traders in knowledge, they compete with those who dedicate themselves professionally to teaching, and appointing boards are not competent to distinguish those who want the salary from those who want the work.

You have asked me, a pediatrician, dealing daily—and nightly—with the physical and mental difficulties which beset children and parents, to talk to you of what the teacher can do to promote mental health, well-being, among the children committed to her charge. "Old stuff," you say. Yes; but when was it ever unimportant? Or when monotonous, with times and customs changing as they do?

Seward Hiltner, of the Federal Council of Churches, recently said, "Only the school can come near rivaling the church as a potential agent for positive and preventive mental hygiene." Well, the church is neglected by many, and religion is neglected by the schools. Secularism has the teachers afraid even to mention the Bible. Ignorance of the beauty and majesty of this least-read best seller is appalling. If Mr. Hiltner implies that a real interest in religion (no matter what its label) is an important part of mental hygiene, I emphatically agree with him.

In St. Louis, the public schools are setting aside 2 hours each week during which children of the Jewish, Catholic, and Protestant faiths may receive religious instruction in churches of their choice—an excellent move indeed. What, specifically, can you teachers do about religion in your classrooms? Clearly, get all of it you can yourselves, "let your light shine," but beware of waxing evangelistic in class; the controversial element can make much trouble.

THE TEACHER

Yes, let the teacher look first to herself (or, of course, to himself; I use the feminine on the basis of probability). School is not a machine into which one drops a child, turns a crank, and receives the educated product in due course. (Do I hear some wag say that the teacher may be the crank? The answer is, she may.)

Is she pretty, or something less? Is she young, or not so young? Has she a sense of humor, or is she Naziesque? Is she happy or unhappy? Well or sick? Married or single? Catholic, Protestant, Jewish, Eddyite, or Fundamentalist? If teachers are, as they should be, examined physically to make sure that they do not infect the children with tuberculosis, they should also be examined psychologically, to make sure that their various attitudes and reactions don't cause troubles of a less tangible but vitally important nature.

Illustrations—always more interesting—are in order.

I was, in Vergil's phrase, *ter quaterque beatus*—thrice and four times blessed in having as teachers of English composition two men whose methods were diametrically opposite, yet each of whom was

truly a master. Each went over themes, stories, articles, with the students individually, painstakingly, expertly. But how acidly, irritatingly did Professor Copeland (Copey, as he has always been called) sting and stir and stimulate the budding authors committed to his charge! "Oh, White, for God's sake stop! I can't endure it! Oh! oh! This is sad stuff!" Thus he prepared us for the rough treatment bound to be forthcoming from the heartless fiends known as editors. Thus he dealt us the "stings that bid nor sit nor stand but go." We toiled not only for Copey but also for fear of Copey.

Contrast now this histrionically minded gadfly with the kindly, gentle, altogether lovable Dean Briggs. On him the split infinitive, the wanton use of "would" for "should," inflicted obvious pain. We strove to save him such pain—or somehow make it easier to bear. Where Copey—beloved in a different way—would shout, "Damn it, find some other phrase!" the Dean would plead, "Now couldn't you, perhaps—" etc., as though he were reasoning with Dickens or Thackeray.

Dean Briggs, like Mark Hopkins, in Guiterman's famous poem,

came as a pedagogue
And taught as an elder brother . . .
The farmer boy he thought, thought he,
All through lecture time and quiz,
The kind of a man I mean to be
Is the kind of a man Mark Hopkins is.

You've guessed it—I can't help finishing the poem.

Theology, languages, medicine, law,
Are peacock feathers to deck the daw
If the boys who come from your splendid schools
Are well-trained sharpeners or flippant fools.
You may boast of your age and your ivied walls,
Your great endowments, your marble halls
And all your modern features,
Your vast curriculum's scope and reach,
And the multifarious things you teach—
But how about your teachers?
Are they men who can stand in a father's place
Who are paid, best paid by the ardent face
When boyhood gives, as boyhood can,
Its love and faith to a fine true man?
No printed word nor spoken plea
Can teach young hearts what men should be,
Not all the books on all the shelves,
But what the teachers are themselves,
For Education is, Making Men;
So is it now, so was it when
Mark Hopkins sat on one end of a log
And James Garfield sat on the other.

Happy the school which can boast small classes and which can afford to pick and pay the best teachers! Private schools, please note, should not have to exist. But while we have inept, politically controlled school boards, while we feel that we must devote money to tanks and bombs rather than to such factual, moral, and spiritual education as will do away with instruments of mass murder, the financially fortunate will continue to buy their children the best possible education. Public opinion will push and drive the public schools, as it has, and as it should. But the bests should guide the good. And the best costs money. That 'tis true, 'tis pity.

I asked before, Is the teacher happy? Well, she is more likely to be if she is paid a living wage. Is she married? Many darts not flung by Cupid are hurled at matrimony—some of them by our august school boards. I am of those who feel that adjustability is part and parcel of education as it concerns both teacher and taught. It is also the *sine qua non* of successful marriage. Should we select married teachers? Why not? The answer is, It all depends.

Is our prospective teacher sick? I don't mean, does she have pneumonia, or is she dying of cancer? But I do mean that if, for example, she has a low basal metabolic rate she will be a far better teacher if she takes thyroid than if she does not. And so on and on.

A final word to the men: We do, or should, take great care in the selection of the mothers of our children. It is not much less important that we should do all in our power through our influence as citizens to provide them with the best teachers obtainable.

TEACHER AND PUPIL

The teacher-pupil relationship is not the 50-50 affair which the casual observer might suppose it to be. A third factor, the home (which we shall discuss later), makes it triangular. For the present, however, we shall busy ourselves with what goes on in the classroom. You will note that I am intentionally ignoring the fact that I am addressing teachers of deaf children. I am sure that you would have it so. For it is the glory of your art that like the teachers of the blind, you train your charges to act, as far as is humanly possible, as though their affliction did not exist. Who could fail to realize that the problems involved in teaching the deaf are increased manifold, or that your store of patience and understanding must be great in proportion? In one respect only I think you have the advantage over teachers of normal children: The rapt, eager attention, concentration, which your pupils give. You know—that expression on the face of a deaf child.

Whether the methods of a school are "progressive" or "conservative" makes as much difference to the teacher as to the pupil. At one extreme stands the military school, with its rigid rules; at the other the "ultra-progressive" school, with what might be called unbridled self-expression. If, as Glover and Dewey (2) describe it, "exploration, discovery, experiment form the keynote of the modern school," we should have little quarrel with such modernity.

To show you what the teachers in our country are up against, I list some statistics given by these authors:

Number of children in the United States of America.....	45,000,000
Handicapped (including delinquents and those with behavior difficulties).....	10,000,000
Those with impaired hearing.....	3,000,000
Completely deaf.....	17,000
Those with impaired vision.....	65,000
Completely blind.....	15,000
Crippled.....	300,000
Tuberculous.....	400,000
Tuberculosis suspected.....	850,000
Those with cardiac disease.....	450,000
Mentally deficient.....	6,500,000
Malnourished.....	6,000,000

One of the worst difficulties besetting teachers is large classes. Here the niggardliness of the school boards and of the taxpayers is manifested at its worst. Children with reading problems, psychologic maladjustments, etc., can hardly receive the attention they should in a room containing 40 or 50 pupils.

Considering how overworked many teachers are, it is amazing what they do accomplish. Take 5-year-old Norma for example. She proceeded to develop a "complex" on leaving home and mother for kindergarten. She expressed herself by vomiting on the kindergarten floor every morning on arrival. With 45 other children to look after, the teacher calmly cleaned up after Norma, without either commenting or committing murder. She deserved (but never got) a *croix de guerre* with palms; for the vomiting stopped in due course.

In 1928 the Commonwealth Fund published an absorbingly interesting study, by E. K. Wickman of New York, on Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes. Many of you are doubtless familiar with it. We must spend some time on it now.

In a Cleveland school 27 teachers reported 185 separate items of undesirable behavior—a reminder of Henry IV's reference to committing the oldest sins the newest kind of ways. Parents, says Wickman, are more aware than teachers of neurotic habits, problems of eating and sleeping. Teachers are more interested in problems relating to the school situation, such as truancy, laziness, disorderliness, impoliteness, selfishness, and boastfulness. One teacher in Minneapolis (who was probably not possessed of the gift of keeping order) listed no less than 7 items indicating pupils' antagonism to authority.

The fact that certain teachers are so ineffectual as uniformly to stimulate cheating on the part of their students, certainly does not excuse the students, but does indicate the need of self-investigation and revision of method on the part of the teachers.

The following interesting differences in attitudes of teachers and mental hygienists (30 of the latter) are listed by Wickman. (The symbol > indicates "greater or worse than.")

Teachers

Immoralities Dishonesties Transgressions against authority	>	Violations of orderliness and of application to school work	>	Aggressiveness	>	Withdrawing, recessive per- sonality and behavior traits
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Mental hygienists

Withdrawing, recessive per- sonality and behavior traits	>	Dishonesties Cruelty Tantrums Truancy	>	Immoralities Violations of school require- ments Extravagant behavior traits	>	Transgressions against authority, violations of orderliness in class
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The next table (Wickman) gives an excellent summary of the requirements by social forces on individual behavior, and the two different means of evasion of those requirements used by children (and adults for that matter)—withdrawal and attack:

<i>Evasions by withdrawal</i>	<i>Requirements by social forces on individual behavior.</i>	<i>Evasions by attack</i>
Fearfulness Sulkiness Dreaminess Shyness Dependence on adults Cowardliness Unsociableness Dependency on routine Pedantry Solitariness Fear of criticism Suspiciousness Inability to carry responsibility Inefficiency Social inadequacy	Requirements for child behavior imposed by family, neighborhood, companions, school. Requirements for adult behavior established by social institutions, traditions, customs, the law.	Temper tantrums Disobedience Overactivity Aggressiveness Defiance to authority Fighting Delinquency Rejection of routine Pursuing own methods of work Wanting to direct Breaking conventions Antagonistic attitudes Exploitation of own authority Contentiousness Egocentricity
<i>Regressive escapes</i>	<i>Retreats into productive activity</i>	<i>Constructive attacks</i> <i>Destructive attacks</i>
Neurotic complaints Economic dependency Alcoholism Drug addiction Functional insanity Suicide	Invention Research Science Literature Art	Competitive sports Exploration Industrial exploits Social and political reforms Psychopathic tendencies "I won't work" Crime

Teacher and pupil—a forbiddingly complex subject, it would seem, like all other human relationships honestly faced. Suffice it that she who would educate—bring out as well as recognize the best that is in her pupils—must have more than a bowing acquaintance with herself, her shortcomings, and her talents.

TEACHER, PUPIL, AND HOME

In the three-cornered relationship which we have been considering, the influence of the child's home life—his "family set-up"—is at least as important as that of the teacher. Parent-teacher associations help a little here. But personal conferences of parents with teachers, more practicable in schools with small classes, give vital information as to the help or hindrance which the folks at home may be expected to provide.

I have said elsewhere (3) that the mother sets the standard of the home; that "no matter how good the English teacher may be, he or she need scarcely expect successfully to 'buck' a steady counterbarrage of maternal 'he dont's,' or 'those kind of things,' 'between you and I,' and the like."

The home! It provides all of the heredity and much of the environment; it provides genius, mediocrity, and backwardness. Verily, it makes a difference to us who teach!

Wars of nerves are by no means confined to Europe. They have long threatened homes and family circles everywhere. That offspring of another war, the depression, with its crowding, its old folks living with young folks, has increased manifold the "occasions of stumbling." Dad, being out of a job, has an inferiority complex. The

home, which may be defined as that haven where everybody lets down, may suffer in several ways. Any member of the family is likely to use it as a place in which to "blow off" for the purpose of reinflating the sagging ego.

Family rows, whether acute or chronic, overt or covert, have effects on junior as demonstrable as those of real disease. From the point of view of the child, if our ancestors had any right to refer to the bowels of compassion, we are equally entitled to give serious consideration to the gripes of wrath. Cramps, cramps, home-brewed cramps! What emotion has not given rise to them, or aggravated them, in children—and in adults, too, for that matter! Anger, excitement, jealousy, fear, or, most important of all, insecurity, must be taken into account by the diagnostician, once the organic diseases have been ruled out. No less must the teacher be ready to receive and if possible understand the symptom complexes which come her way.

In a rare burst of optimism, Zophar remarked to Job, "Thou shalt be secure, because there is hope." So it is with children. They trust and (as a rule) are not confounded. But it is their parents whom they must trust (and their teachers). If they live in a house divided against itself, one parent must play God to the other's Mammon; and the children's wavering loyalties may manifest themselves in symptoms without number. Often, of course, these "fancies that break through language and escape" are but magnifications of symptoms already present, though negligible until the arrival of the nervous spark necessary to ignite them.

At the small end of the sibling-jealousy line was Alice, aged 5. She had four older brothers and sisters. Sam, aged 7 and next to the youngest, was congenitally deaf. He was, of course, the one with whom Alice would normally do most of her fighting. Now, everyone knows that the chief defensive weapon of the youngest child is noise. But Sam couldn't hear. Mother could, but although she tried to be fair, she often sided with "poor Sam." Yes; you have guessed it. Alice took refuge in symptoms. There was no money for the "play camp" to which they wanted to send her. (Five children, you know!) But there were friends and relatives who helped in the process of spare-time separation of Alice from Sam. It worked.

If more parents realized that failure to keep the domestic peace might result in very real symptoms on the part of the children, would they, ipso facto, keep the peace? Possibly. If they realized that not only adults but also their children, may be subject to "nervous indigestion" and other complaints with easily discoverable causes, they might achieve that highest of all "fleeing goals" of parenthood—the understanding heart. And how the teachers would rise up to call them blessed.

In his extremely valuable review of genius, its cause and care, (4) Bruce Bliven quotes Dr. Catharine Cox Miles' observations on 300 geniuses. Nearly all came from "good stock," with a fairly high intelligence among the parents. Most of them had security, affection, and understanding in their early life. Geniuses, she found, are nearly always kind, trustworthy, conscientious, persistent, cool tempered, physically and mentally active, modest, not eager for pleasure. (Doesn't that list make your pedagogic mouth water?) One-half of these great persons showed their lifelong bent strongly in early childhood; only 25 percent gave no hint of it till they were grown. Clearly,

by proper training, we can turn our potential genius into an actual one whose gifts are useful to mankind.

(I am sure that you who teach the deaf are not really tired of hearing about Edison, Beethoven, and others whose names I should know but don't.) Who could be found to disagree with Mr. Bliven when he says that we need the services of these rare one-in-a-hundred-thousand minds?—that we need to improve our present machinery for finding such individuals in the mass of the population?

Manners? Social development? Here I think the possibilities of the school for good have been underestimated. Hoggishness (especially on the part of the boys) at dances, boorishness at table, general lack of consideration in dress and speech—surely a word from a teacher or an associate goes much further than all the speeches, cajoling, threatening which parents can muster. This is as true of younger children as it is of adolescents. Remarkably enough, the same unkempt, unmannerly boy who hears (or does he?) grandma say, "The way you talk and act to us, you don't need to think you can be nice at Mrs. Post's party"—may be a model of decorum at the school dance.

I suppose that from the teacher's point of view it would be better if all the uncured, unsuppressed children, whose mothers read all the books, could be sent to schools where the children "express themselves all over the place." Do I ridicule those who favor such self-expression? By no means, if it is encouraged with a sense of proportion and a sense of humor. Whether in school or home, it is far more in keeping with democratic procedure, as well as a great psychologic improvement over the old Victorian "Children should be seen and not heard" method.

Nine years ago I felt constrained to put some thoughts on this subject into poetic or rather versified form:

CHILD PSYCHOLOGY, 1932

With apologies to A. A. Milne and to Christopher Robin

Little Girl's having a tantrum-and-row;
Dad yearns to paddle her pantrum-and-how!
But hush! Hush! Dear little elf,
Little Jeannette is expressing herself.

"My intelligence quotient is one-forty-nine;
No Victorian repressions, no spankings were mine.
I've been kissed once a week on the back of my head.
For a hug I've received a brisk handshake instead.

"I'm so sorry for Johnny! They called out, 'Stop!'
When he sat in the garbage and fished with the mop.
Why, I started our Chevy the other day—
(Perhaps I should call it a Chevrolet).

"Well, it ran down the driveway and crossed the street,
And it upset the man who was bringing the meat,
And the man said something about spoiled brats,
And he'd like to give one a good kick in the slats.

"Now what slats might be, I could never guess,
And whom he'd kick, I don't know—unless
It might be Nancy—it might be Marie—
It might be Johnny—or—it might be me!

"But I learned a lot about Chevrolets,
And Mummy said, 'Daddy, now don't scold, praise!'
Hush! Hush! Dear little elf.
Little Jeannette was expressing herself.

Surely, somewhere between the overdisciplined shrinking violet, sans initiative, and the pestiferous seeker after the limelight is the optimus or optima to which we parents and teachers must ever help our charges attain. And the place where this quest is often so well begun—where parents and teachers get closest together—is the pre-kindergarten school.

Two years ago, I used up considerable ink in trying to answer a self-put question, "Whither salvation?" (6.) It seemed to me then, as now, that doctors and teachers, not to mention psychologists, are in a fair way to appropriate some of the clergymen's business of salvation. One agency which functions at a time when it may really count for much in the effort at "prophylaxis of lost souls" is the nursery school.

To quote: "For a time it seemed to me that those in charge of the preprimary schools had a deep yearning for the day when all parents might be destroyed, or at least banished. Emotional instability; mother complexes; father fixations; broken homes, jealousy of baby sister; only child set-up, with dictator complex—familiar phrases all, now. (Oh, Hitler, Mussolini, Stalin! Why couldn't you have gone to nursery school?)

"And the parents! Harassed by grandparents who never had to send their children to spinsters to bring up; badgered by the hard-boiled prekindergarteners as they methodically detailed their angels' shortcomings. The way of the progressive was hard. But note the past tense. It is clear that all the parties enumerated are getting together. Nursery schools have come to stay; and so, it would seem, have parents. Nursery school teachers, and to some extent doctors, have taught both those who send their children to such schools and those who do not many things which they need to know."

Yes; at the ages of 2 to 4 years, the home and the teacher are close indeed, even as the home and the pupil are inseparable. To the teacher, as to the doctor (who must himself be a good deal of teacher) and to the minister, it is given to bring out, to help develop the latent gifts in their pupils of all ages, and in the homes from which they come.

You have elected to teach those who must traverse a soundless world. You are trained pilots on a silent sea. You have met the challenge of a noble profession. You have made it nobler by your determination to help those who cannot hear make their contribution to a world which is ever more ready to slight than to receive. We who try to teach the more fortunate can only pause to do you honor—all of us mindful, let us hope, that after the wind, the earthquake, and the fire, it was the still small voice which was God.

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Mr. STEED. Dr. White, your audience said "Thank you" in a very pleasant and forceful way. We greatly appreciate the message you have brought us.

We will now hear from Dr. Tom L. Anderson, who is here before us as president of the National Association of the Deaf. The title of his address is *The Challenge to Leadership*.

THE CHALLENGE TO LEADERSHIP

(Dr. TOM L. ANDERSON, president of the National Association of the Deaf)

Mr. President, members of the convention, ladies, and gentlemen, in presuming to address this convention in behalf of the National Association of the Deaf I do so in the profound conviction that our problems are common problems, and that we might possibly work out more effective solutions through closer cooperation.

I call your attention to the fact that the National Association of the Deaf committee on education is composed of a professional man from outside the teaching profession as chairman, a vocational principal, an active teacher, and a former teacher; and in an advisory capacity two superintendents, both past presidents of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf. The personnel of this committee should inspire confidence in all quarters that the National Association is organized to cooperate with the convention, and to give educational problems sympathetic consideration.

In conveying the greetings of the National Association of the Deaf at the opening of this convention, I remarked that a convention of the National Association is, in effect, a gathering of the matured product of all the schools and of the college. I further remarked that the problems of education and the outcomes of education, viewed in their practical aspects, have formed the major concern of the National Association since its founding, way back in 1880; that in all matters affecting the best interests of the deaf children of America the educational system which you personify has always had the active cooperation of the National Association. For these reasons we should be actively and cordially cooperating—you in your position to establish character, to train minds and hands; we in our position to observe the practical value of your work and to report back to you. It has been well said by that sterling educator of the deaf, J. Schuyler Long, that "the place to test the success of an educational system is not in the schoolroom or over the social teacups but out where men toil and earn their daily bread. Its test is whether the graduate has made good and won a successful and respected place among his fellowmen."

In talking to you today I shall attempt to sketch some of the major problems which confront the adult deaf at this time, problems which I believe should concern you in your responsibility for preparing the coming generation for practical life. I shall bear most heavily upon the problem which I regard as paramount.

TRAINING FOR LEADERSHIP

Among the adult deaf, we find a truly astonishing multiplicity of organizations. This may be the outcome of the practice of organizing various groups in the schools, but the fact is that the deaf in-

stinctively pursue their social, recreational, religious, and welfare objectives with a deep sense of the value of organized effort. This in turn calls for voluntary leadership, and for financing, and for action at times reaching even to the Halls of Congress and the White House.

The past generation did not lack such leadership, capable, vigorous, and outspoken. However, the evidence of a decline in the number of available leaders, and of a lack of leadership ability in the rising generation, is a present cause of comment and concern.

Commenting upon the convention of the Iowa Association last summer, Mrs. Barrett of Los Angeles, long a writer of keen observations in the deaf press, writes in the *Journal of the Deaf*: "We were glad to see the old leaders of 15 years ago, all spry and mentally alert, but young leaders do not seem to be coming up as they should."

From my personal mail, I select two significant comments along the same line. The first, from the Pacific coast: "The younger generation are a problem here. They have no conception of service to their fellow deaf." The second, from the Atlantic coast: "It has become difficult to fill the office of secretary in organizations of the deaf. The younger generation cannot qualify."

The condition which prompts such comments as these certainly deserves a critical examination. To one who is familiar with the comparative backgrounds of recent generations of the deaf, a number of points stand out clearly, and it may be worth while to discuss these, along general lines.

The deaf of America have written a proud chapter in the annals of social service, in their demonstrated ability to make use of their educational training to take care of their own welfare through organized effort. Proudly, they have avoided dependence upon agencies of public charity. Just as the objective of our schools is to educate the deaf for independent citizenship, in order that they may not become public charges, the objective of organizations of the deaf is to assure this happy outcome. This independence of the adult deaf may be one of the reasons why the general public knows so little about them, for it stands to reason that if the deaf descended in a body upon the social-service agencies of the general public, and become a major problem therein, the general public might be more familiar with them.

Organizations of the deaf have fought for and have largely maintained, an equality of citizenship rights, and a means of social happiness under conditions which are natural and comfortable to the deaf. Barred from equality by the life insurance companies, they proceeded to establish their own life insurance company which has proved their quality as good risks, and has broken down the barriers in the old-line companies which once refused them. Attempts to legislate against their rights to marry, to have children, to own and drive cars, and in other ways to pursue a normal life, have all been fought and defeated by organized effort, by the deaf themselves, with the help of friends persuaded that their cause was just. Today, they must be constantly alert lest some crank introduce a law encroaching upon their freedom to enjoy full citizenship rights. The deaf of New York have just defeated a proposed law giving physicians the power to deprive them of the right to drive cars,

through unfavorable report on a physical examination. In passing, it may be said few know less about the deaf than the average physician.

The industrial committee of the National Association of the Deaf has just come forth victorious from a clash with one of the major insurance companies, which had ruled deaf workmen as unsafe for employment in Army camp construction work. Following this committee's vigorous presentation of the facts, the insurance company backed down from its position and agreed that henceforth no such restriction would be placed against the deaf in this type of work.

Against these organizations, and against these leaders, forces have been at work tending to bring an end to this happy condition. These forces I shall proceed to group under the general term of "Education." Bear with me while I check the record.

There is bitter irony in the fact that such a charge should be made against education, for the reason that our State and national organizations of the deaf, created by deaf leaders of large vision, centered their first efforts about the major problem of founding and improving schools for the deaf, getting trained people in charge of them, and getting deaf children into them that these children might share the great boon of educational enlightenment and live useful lives within the State.

Edmund Booth, the Iowan who presided over the organization meeting of the National Association of the Deaf in Cincinnati in 1880, was personally instrumental in founding the first school for deaf children in Iowa, through his appeals and demonstrations before the legislature. Able deaf leaders in other States have performed the same service. The record shows that several deaf men personally founded and organized State schools. The organized deaf are, and always have been, the first to rise in vigorous protest whenever schools for the deaf are in danger of being handed over to politicians, or to the exponents of impractical educational theories. As a vociferous minority, rallying the support of influential humanitarians, the organized deaf have done more to secure respect for schools for the deaf as educational institutions, and as such not to be governed under any spoils system, than any organization of hearing people. Leaders in the Iowa association were responsible for the rearrangement which placed the Iowa school under the State board of education. Other State associations, backed by the National Association, have fought successfully for reclassification of their State schools, to take them out of the eleemosynary group and place them in the educational group where they belong. As long as a single State school for deaf children remains under the direction of an inmate-minded "board of charities and correction," or a "board of control," concerned with problems of financing and maintaining institutions in which unfortunates are "put away" at the lowest cost per capita, there will be need of this service of the organized deaf, who are the alumni of the schools.

During the area of the deaf teacher, and of the administrator who recognized his peculiar power, the younger generation did not lack examples of accomplishment well within their powers. Along with their formal education, they were exposed to the missionary zeal of

forceful, educated men and women, handicapped like themselves, who had gloriously overcome their handicap and could inspire others to do likewise. With such examples before them, the children could highly resolve: "My teacher has forced his way to the top in spite of his deafness. There is hope for me."

Today, the majority of these pioneers have passed on, or have retired. In the name of educational progress, standards have been raised to require of teachers of the deaf an accredited educational background exceedingly difficult for handicapped persons to secure in an educational set-up devised for the mass education of the hearing. Exceptional deaf persons frequently take advanced degrees in such a set-up, it is true. But comparatively few of these are advanced to commanding positions in our schools. Comparatively few possess that inner fire which enabled the deaf pioneer to teach effectively though lacking accredited technical training.

The administrators of our schools have turned to the theory that hearing people are best qualified to train deaf children for life in a hearing world. The generation of young hearing people who have taken over the training of deaf children, zealous and well-meaning though they are, are united in the present effort to train deaf children away from their handicap, and all that this handicap implies. Emphasis is now placed upon a normal social life, among normal people. Into this scheme of training, and of life in after-school days, organizations of the deaf do not find a place, nor are they fostered nor is the indispensable means of communication used in conducting the business of such organizations being developed. Ability to find and to enjoy occupation, social diversion, and happiness in the world of the hearing is now the ideal toward which educators of the deaf are working. Many of these well-meaning educators completely ignore the pattern of living into which the deaf naturally gravitate once they have passed from the artificial atmosphere of the school-room, and it may be said that they look upon organizations of the deaf as an embarrassment, in that these organizations counteract the current propaganda that the deaf are being "restored to society" through lip reading. We may assume that they are not properly aware of the great debt they, as educators, owe to the activities of such organizations in the past history of the education of the deaf.

There is another angle to this. Although hearing teachers are encouraged to take an active part in service organizations, and while some of our superintendents rise to high positions in the Elks, the Kiwanis, and the Lions clubs, as a form of contribution to society, deaf teachers of the deaf, who are the natural leaders in State and national organizations do not receive the same measure of encouragement. They may give of their time and talents to their own people, as should seem worthy of recognition as a contribution to society. But within recent years many of these have come to feel that if they become too active in their leadership they are jeopardizing their jobs. The adult deaf have acquired the complex that a deaf teacher should not be elected to office for the reason that he cannot serve freely, that his activities in behalf of the adult deaf must be subordinated to the policy of his school superintendent. This gives the impression that the adult deaf sense the existence of an antagonism on the part of our school administrators. Certainly, this is not a wholesome condition.

That these educators are not properly aware of their indebtedness to the adult deaf is not surprising, considering the fact that so little emphasis is placed upon research into the phenomena of several generations of successful independent living—the upward struggles of a proud race. The social heritage urged upon deaf children in our schools is all gleaned from the hearing world, regardless of whether the child may be fitted for access to it in his later years. No heroes, deaf like themselves, are presented. This I hold up without hesitation as a problem which should concern the leadership in our educational system, as it concerns us.

Are we following the wiser course when we ignore the greater possibilities which lie in definite training for enjoyment of a form of life which is practical, satisfying, full, and complete in its essential features as they parallel life in a hearing community, while we strive to make water run up hill in our effort to force upon these young people a training for a form of life to which they are not adapted and in which they can never play more than a minor part? This training, be it understood, is essentially a preparation for broader living, an adjunct to the necessary coaching for normal behavior in the hearing world, and not in any sense a substitute for it. We have in mind an educational training narrow in no sense of the word, but broad and all-inclusive, so that the individual may make his free choice in his equipment to live his own life in his own way, "fear God, and take his own part." Let it not be said that our educational system has become so sodden in its emphasis upon method that it has lost its proper perspective as to what constitutes a well-rounded life. Let all remember that at least three generations of the deaf had successfully lived and progressed in the hearing world before the educational system began to lay such emphasis upon details of training them for life in the hearing world, with resultant confusion.

The question arises here: Are leaders among the deaf to come from our schools by accident, through native ability, and through interest aroused later in life? Or might we expect them to come as the result of intelligent, specific preparation for, and familiarity with the social life to which they will surely gravitate?

I do not mean to stand up here and deliver a sweeping indictment of our educational system for any apparent failure. I am too closely identified with our program of education, over the past 20 years, not to feel conscious of a share in the responsibility. I have tried frankly to check the record, to point out the trends as they appear from reports based upon Nation-wide contacts with the adult deaf. I leave open the large question of responsibility. For the answer, we must challenge the leaders of all organizations concerning themselves with the deaf.

Now, turning from the paramount problem of the development and training of leaders who may carry on, lest the social gains we have fought for be lost, I wish to mention several other problems which challenge our joint leadership today. Due to the limitation of time, I am forced to be brief.

CIVIL SERVICE

In view of the excellent performance large numbers of the deaf might render in the service of government, the treatment accorded

the intelligent product of our educational system by the civil service is frankly shameful. If we go back to the year 1908, in a brief review, we will find that the deaf, at that time, were grouped with the insane, the epileptic, and the unfit, and denied admittance to civil-service examinations. Persistent efforts of the National Association leaders culminated in an appeal to Theodore Roosevelt, humanly worded, as follows: "Mr. President, how would you feel if Quentin should recover from an attack of scarlet fever deprived of the sense of hearing and with speech impaired, to have him classified with the insane, the epileptic, and the unfit?" President Roosevelt reacted in characteristic fashion, rescinded the civil-service restrictions against the deaf, and ordered that deaf mutes might be admitted to examinations for all positions which, in the judgment of the examining officer, they were capable of filling. All went well until the Civil Service Commission devised a rule, which certified that three names should be submitted from the top of the list of eligibles, for each vacant position, where formerly the one name at the top was submitted. In operation, this rule gives the department head needing a clerk the right to choose one from three eligibles submitted to him. You can readily see how this rule has prevented deaf men and women from reaching actual employment, regardless of the excellence of their grades in the examinations. The civil service has other conceptions of the deaf, based upon obsolete ideas, which I have not the time to recount here. But more recently a phrase has crept into the application blanks for many of the positions in governmental service, as follows: "Hearing—ordinary conversation must be heard and understood at a distance of at least 15 feet with one ear." Although the civil service issues a leaflet listing "Positions for Which Deaf Mutes May Be Considered," and another leaflet listing practically the same jobs, entitled "Positions for Which Hard-of-Hearing Persons May Be Considered," it is plainly apparent that the civil service does not want either deaf or hard-of-hearing workers.

It may come a bit closer to home to you when I tell you that quite recently an intelligent and experienced deaf teacher of the deaf was refused admittance to the examination to fill a vacancy in a small school for Indian deaf children, on the ground that the Government did not employ deaf teachers of the deaf.

Now, I raise the question: Are these matters properly the concern of the organized educators, who have sought to prepare the deaf for normal living in a normal world? Or is this just one more battle to be carried to the door of the White House by "that thin, red line of heroes" who carried it there before? Or is it more properly a common cause, challenging our united efforts?

We hear much of the need of educating the general public as to the capabilities of the deaf. A past president of your convention gave sound advice at a convention of the National Association when he urged that "the deaf must advertise." We might join forces and conduct a vigorous campaign to educate the officials of our Government, in order that the performance of our educated deaf in the service of Government might be held up as an example to employers generally.

DEAF PEDDLERS

I take up a subject now which brings the blush of shame to my face. Briefly, the country is being overrun by gangs of deaf peddlers, who are but a shade removed from classification as beggars, in that they trade on their handicap. The evidence shows most of them to be the uneducated drop-outs and rejects from our schools, who are being recruited by gang bosses and taken from town to town in fleets of fine cars and set to ringing door bells. They offer a card explaining that they are deaf and in need of help, will you please buy? Their wares consist of packets of needles, rolls of bandages, shoe strings, etc. Price, a dime—or whatever you wish to give. After covering a town they rejoin their gang boss, turn over the “take,” get back a small percentage, and sail away to the next town, to repeat the performance. Mixed groups? Oh, yes—deaf girls are taken into these gangs, and from reports reaching me they live a sordid, if exciting, life. Nobody seems to be able to do anything about it, and meanwhile the rascals who are exploiting these young people are getting rich. Offsetting this is the fact that sooner or later these deaf peddlers drift back home broke and bitter. I have raised my voice in public warning, but the country is wide, the racket flourishing.

Now, ladies and gentlemen of the educational profession, is this the sort of thing we are training our deaf children to do when they leave our schools? Or is it the only thing left for the unfortunate few who cannot adapt themselves to the form in which education is being presented today, those who cannot hope to progress to graduation through oral classes? Whose is the responsibility of leadership here: Yours, to reach more of these young people, and carry them further through school so that they can understand and avoid such heartless exploitation; or ours, to police the Nation, to harrass the gang bosses, and to run these young people out of town, from town to town? Or is it properly our joint responsibility?

THE “GIMME” ATTITUDE

Criticism of the younger generation by the adult deaf seems to center about their attitude of selfishness, that everything should be theirs for the asking. To quote one comment from a highly educated deaf man: “It has always seemed to me that a majority, if not all, of the deaf have merely skipped through school in routine fashion without the school having gone through their heads, else they’d be imbued with a greater sense of responsibility, and the will to cooperate. Too many seem to be coddled into a ‘gimme’ attitude, instead of being inspired to give of themselves. Let’s knock into the rising generation that we not only expect of them fair play in the athletic world but in the general hearing world as well.”

In my opinion, this comment lays bare the essential weakness of enforced conformity to the artificial life of an institution. How can we expect a young person to acquire a sense of responsibility when he is brought up in a community wherein everything possible is done for him by others, including most of his thinking; where his needs are anticipated without any worry on his part; where, if he breaks a window, he knows that the repair man will fix it, so what; where he ac-

quires an exaggerated sense of his importance in proportion to the multiplicity of free services centering about him; where he has no natural opportunity to acquire property and privilege through the principle of work and earn, care for, or lose?

Is it not a challenge to leadership that such a condition is permitted to exist? That, knowing it to exist, we are attacking it by broadening the extent of the service to the individual by setting up agencies to follow the graduate, secure him a job, a boarding place, and nurse him through the period of adjustment to the new form of life?

We train the deaf to play football. We provide the coaching, and the coaching instructs in the essentials of ball carrying. It does not carry the ball. Coaching strategy provides for blocking, to clear the path for the man who carries the ball, but the rules insist that he continue to carry the ball. Have we a parallel here, in education for practical life? Are we sure that we have not reached the fine point in organized efficiency where a lot of hearing people are carrying the ball most of the time?

What the deaf have a right to expect, and herein lies the challenge to leadership, are first, the proper coaching in the art of ball carrying and the rules of the game; second, the expert blocking which will serve to remove the most formidable tacklers downfield—the discriminatory laws, the prejudices, and the denial of equality of both opportunity and just recompense in fair competition.

RESPECT FOR THE SIGN LANGUAGE

Let us have a more frank admission of the true value of the sign language as a system of communication among the deaf and less of the disposition to stigmatize it, to eradicate it. Let us regard it, at its best, as a valuable accomplishment, an instrument for good. The system of mongrel signs and mouthing, acquired by young people denied the example of masters, is forcing them into a group apart, for they cannot put across their ideas or understand the proceedings in a gathering of the adult deaf. They find themselves neither fish nor fowl. They are handicapped until they learn better.

HARMFUL PROPAGANDA

One of the most vigorous resolutions passed at the Los Angeles convention of the National Association concerned the constant reiteration of the theme, throughout our press and magazines, that lip reading solves all the problems of the deaf. Such publicity is misleading and downright cruel to the large numbers of the deaf who cannot find a practical solution of their social problems or their economic problems, through lip reading, regardless of their proficiency in this art in the simple intercourse of the schoolroom. We go up against the attitude of people who have come to accept the belief that if we cannot read the lips something is wrong with us mentally or we are not worth bothering about. Regardless of our enthusiasm and belief in the ideal of a beautiful theory, let us at all times be frank and admit limitations. Do not stymie the deaf in their efforts to advertise themselves as they are, by giving the general public the impression that nowadays everything begins with ability to read the lips—that educational miracles

are being accomplished through the application of speech, lip reading, and the hearing aid; that the pad and pencil are relics of the dark ages; that signs and finger spelling are no longer necessary. It takes too much of our time and effort to counteract such wishful propaganda, to explain away the discrepancies between this beautiful fancy and the cold, hard facts. We have a real problem here, in our joint responsibility to give out the true story of the deaf, their abilities, and their disabilities. Let us be frank in saying that neither lip reading nor the sign language nor the pad and pencil do any more to restore the deaf actively to the society of the hearing than the crutch does to restore the crippled athlete to the competition of the hundred-yard dash. But let us emphasize that there are still many useful abilities in both the deaf and the crippled athlete. I am sure that the deaf can stand this frankness if you can.

BENEFICIAL LEGISLATION

Independently, the deaf have been striving for some form of governmental assistance similar to that accorded the blind and other handicapped groups. The National Association of the Deaf is backing a bill now before a congressional committee proposing the establishment of a welfare bureau in the Department of Labor, with numerous desirable features. If secured, this bureau would be in a position to cooperate with the educational system, especially in regard to the surveys proposed, and the statistics concerning the adult deaf it would compile. Perhaps the bill might be amended so as to broaden the scope of the bureau's work along more helpful lines. We might well work together in getting something which we all want, and really need.

FAIR CONSIDERATION FOR THE PROFOUNDLY DEAF

The influx of large numbers of young people into our schools, with slightly defective hearing, and the effort to adapt the educational program to these, has placed the deaf children at a disadvantage within the province which is rightfully theirs. I have dwelt at length upon this problem in a recent article in the *Annals*, and will not repeat the argument here. Sufficient to say that we confidently expect our educators to solve this problem effectively, to provide fairly for those children whose only hope for an education lies in the full and complete application of the special methods best adapted to them.

In closing this frank talk with you, I repeat the assurance that the National Association—your children of yesterday—stands eager, in an attitude of entire friendliness, to cooperate with our educational system now as in the past, to assure our deaf children an educational training best adapted to their ability to render their true account in practical life. In voicing this assurance, we accept our share in the joint responsibility of leadership in the affairs of the deaf.
[Applause.]

Mr. STEED. As there is no further business before us, the meeting now stands adjourned.

(Whereupon at 12 noon, the convention was adjourned until the afternoon session.)

GENERAL SESSION, WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, JUNE 25

Auditorium, Advanced School Building, 2 p. m.

Presiding: W. Laurens Walker, superintendent, South Carolina School.

Address: "Testing the Young Deaf Child," Dr. Marshall S. Hiskey, department of educational psychology and measurements, University of Nebraska.

Address: "The Importance of Personality in Everyday Living," Dr. Elizabeth Peet, dean of women, Gallaudet College.

Address: "Character and Moral Training of the Deaf," Rev. Robert C. Fletcher, Episcopal missionary to the deaf, Birmingham, Ala.

The Wednesday afternoon general session of the convention convened at 2 p. m. in the auditorium of the Advanced School Building, Mr. W. Laurens Walker, presiding.

Mr. WALKER. The subject of our first address this afternoon is Testing the Young Deaf Child, and surely that is a subject of great importance to all teachers in schools for the deaf. A great many schools are now beginning to test the small deaf child so that he can properly be placed in the classes in the schools. Personally, I am going to listen to this address with a great deal of interest, and I am sure that everyone here is going to do likewise. We shall now hear from Dr. Marshall S. Hiskey, who is instructor and clinical psychologist of the department of educational psychology and measurements, University of Nebraska.

TESTING THE YOUNG DEAF CHILD

(Dr. MARSHALL S. HISKEY, University of Nebraska)

Three years ago, a 9-year-old boy was brought to the clinical laboratory of the University of Nebraska for psychological examination. The boy came to the laboratory from the State institution for the feeble-minded where he had been an inmate for the past 4 or 5 years. Although he did not talk, certain individuals connected with the institution noticed that his attack on the various problems which he encountered, and his general behavior were superior to the same activities in other members of the group and so suggested that an attempt be made to obtain a rating of his mental potentialities. An examination with various performance tests revealed a mental age that would give an intelligence quotient in the eighties. The boy was not feeble-minded, he was deaf. As a young child he reacted so queerly to the commands of others that when the home was broken up the court committed him to the institution for the feeble-minded.

A year later the speaker again examined the boy at the State school for the deaf at Omaha. When the boy came into the room, he looked at the speaker and, with a wide grin, he pointed excitedly to himself, then to the speaker, and then in the direction of the city where he had been examined previously, all the while nodding his head vigorously as if to emphasize the fact that he remembered the brief meeting 1 year ago. Was this the action of a feeble-minded boy?

Almost every member of the audience could relate a similar incident. The boy in the case just described probably has found school rather difficult and it is doubtful if he ever will be an average student. The effects of spending 4 or 5 years in such an environment at this important and plastic age cannot be erased in a month, or a year, or perhaps

ever. Can society ever repay such a person for the injustice it has done him?

To the many children who do not suffer from a general defect but who have some special handicap or disability that interferes with their social and educational adjustment an adequate mental diagnosis means relief from the stigma of mental deficiency. Deafness is a handicap of the sensory organ, but certainly it is not an index of mental deficiency. However, it is quite probable that no other group with a single handicap presents so serious a problem from the point of view of education as do the deaf.

The normal mental development and equipment of any child depend upon the training during the crucial years of early childhood. More than the hearing child does, the deaf child needs early guidance. The most effective tool the psychologist or teacher has is his knowledge of the individual child, subjective though it may be. But this knowledge functions more freely and effectively when it is supplemented by tools that enable one to determine the child's level of ability. The more clearly the importance of the preschool and early school years is realized, the greater will be the demand for reliable methods of testing these younger children.

We often overlook the fact that school tasks may be too easy for some pupils. It is comparatively simple for the teacher to discern the maladjustments resulting from the inability of pupils to do the work, but it is much more difficult to analyze those caused by the work being too easy. Maladjustment often results for boys and girls who learn their lessons with only a little preparation. If it takes only a little preparation, the pupil often does less. He is bored by drill and repeated explanation of material that he understood when it was first explained. It has been said that teachers should teach children and not subjects. They must do both.

You who are familiar with the education of the deaf child will appreciate the possibilities of a device that will render assistance in determining the level of development of the younger child and thus aid in gaining a better understanding of him at the beginning of his educational career. If supplementary measuring devices are valuable in making the school program more effective for the hearing child, then they should be even more valuable with a group which must start with the handicap of deafness.

The teacher of the deaf child at the preparatory levels often must spend much of her time working with the slower pupils as individuals. In many instances this is done at the expense of the more capable children and often results in a great waste since it is difficult to keep the young deaf child occupied constructively without the direct and almost constant guidance and supervision of the teacher. Unless some measuring device is used, there is no means of ascertaining the abilities of these younger children without spending several months working with them and then one cannot be sure his judgments are correct.

The actual testing of young deaf children presents problems which are unique. Practically every impression of the test materials gained by the child must be through the sense of sight. This means that the attention factor is even more important with deaf subjects than it is with hearing subjects. Within the past 18 months the speaker has tested approximately 500 deaf and hard-of-hearing children below

the age of 10 and he is of the opinion that deaf subjects are more prone to "jump to conclusions" and to overestimate their abilities than are hearing subjects. Research shows that the deaf child almost always makes some kind of response regardless of whether he understands what is required or not. It is necessary to make him take the allotted time for viewing the materials before he attempts a response. That all-too-familiar statement, "I know," accompanied by the appropriate sign is a stock procedure with the young deaf child who is trying to impress one with his wisdom. Yet, if he is permitted to enter hastily into the task presented, he frequently does not know, and a puzzled and somewhat "sheepish" grin suddenly replaces the former expression of confidence.

Since the deaf child does gain so much through the sense of sight, he is extremely curious about almost everything that comes within his range of vision. It is a decided advantage that the test materials be the most interesting objects in the room. The items must be attractive inasmuch as effort on the part of the deaf individual taking the test must be even more voluntary than it would be on the part of a hearing subject. In other words, the attractiveness of the test items is very instrumental in establishing rapport and in obtaining reliable results. The items must sell themselves, for the examiner can do little to sell them to the subject. No matter how good a potential indicator of mental development a series of test items may be, it cannot be satisfactory if the performance it requires from the child is not of interest to him.

If the subjects are young children, half the job of the examiner is to get the subjects to try at all to do what the test calls for. No amount of praise or coaxing will persuade the majority of these younger children to put forth their best efforts if they do not enjoy the activity for its own sake. The only way to secure satisfactory cooperation is to select items to which they will respond for their own pleasure. Otherwise they are very likely to withdraw their cooperation and leave the examiner stranded.

Deaf children are unusually alert to any type of visual cue and the examiner must be careful to avoid gestures or facial expressions which may be interpreted by the subject as indicating approval or disapproval of his method of attack. When responding to tasks which are difficult, or about which he is undecided, the deaf subject often will pause and stare intently at the examiner, hoping to obtain some such cue.

On the other hand, deaf subjects are very susceptible to praise and it should be employed lavishly to keep them interested and "pepped up." Clapping the hands and nodding approval is very effective because it is often employed by the teacher and because it attracts the attention of the subject and has him ready for the next item. If the child's attention is to remain focused on one particular item, other parts of the scale must be in the background, or better yet, completely out of sight.

It has been found advisable to indicate to the young deaf child when he has made a mistake and to let him correct the mistake. If a subject fails an item, because he has not grasped the pantomimed instructions, one of the best ways of getting across what is desired is to see that he corrects his response and then give approval. If the

deaf child is permitted to believe that his incorrect response is acceptable, he will continue to respond in that manner.

The lantern slides which you are about to view will give you some idea of the new performance scale which has been developed for use with these younger deaf and hard-of-hearing children. Circumstances make the study of public school hearing children fairly simple, but with deaf children it is much more difficult to secure norms from large groups since they are scattered so widely. Because of this sampling difficulty and the difficulty of devising items which are applicable to the group, the process of test standardization for young deaf children is far behind that for hearing children and for older deaf groups.

The degree of help which any test item renders the teacher or clinician depends upon the number and representatives of the children upon whom it has been standardized and also upon the reliability and amount of information about the children which the test makes available. Most tests which are of the nonverbal or performance type are weak in these respects when used with deaf or hard-of-hearing children. Many of them have been standardized on hearing groups or upon a combination of hearing and deaf children. This makes the use of norms with deaf groups a rather questionable procedure. Others are too heavily weighted with form boards which in turn not only narrow the sampling possibilities but also place undue emphasis upon speed or time. It is exceedingly difficult and at times impossible to convey the concept of speed to the young deaf child. Still other tests are not standardized below the ages of 7 or 8 years.

The present scale does not claim to have corrected all the before-mentioned shortcomings but they have been kept in mind during its construction and standardization. Before the test was constructed, an intense study was made of young deaf children and their testing limitations. A preliminary scale was constructed which contained 18 different types of items with 204 individual parts. These items were selected and constructed so that all instructions could be given through simple pantomime. They also were constructed so that the scoring would be entirely objective and yet the subject could grasp quickly the method he was to employ in making the response.

The items were first presented to 73 children of the Iowa School for the Deaf whose ages ranged from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 10 years. The items were then subjected to a rigorous analysis and those which did not function satisfactorily were removed from the scale. When this sifting process was completed, the scale contained 11 types of items and 124 individual parts. As a means of lessening misunderstanding it was found desirable to give one or more illustrations or practice exercises before entering into the scored part of the test item.

In addition to the group at the Iowa school, the scale was given to all pupils within the desired age range of the Nebraska, Kansas, Missouri, Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio State schools, and also the pupils of the Lincoln, Nebr., day school. This yielded a total of 466 individuals below the age of 10, or who had reached their tenth birthday within 15 days of the examination date.

The first item of the scale has been titled "Memory for Colored Objects." It is a rather simple, yet attractive and satisfactory, device

consisting of two sets of 8 colored sticks each. As a preliminary exercise, the subject is required to select or match a stick of a particular color which the examiner has presented. This not only gives the subject a better understanding of what is desired of him but also gives the examiner a crude check on the possibility of color blindness which might affect the subject's performance.

The examiner covers the subject's colored sticks with a sheet of cardboard and shows him a stick of a particular color. The examiner then removes his sample and also the cardboard from the subject's set of sticks. The subject must produce from memory the sample which has been shown him. This continues until finally as many as five colors are presented in one sample. (It will be noticed that several of the items of the scale demand, either directly or indirectly, the ability to remember. This is felt to be a desirable feature of the test since memory is so intimately associated with, and perhaps dominant over, most of the other mental processes. Without memory, learning would be meaningless—or even nonexistent.)

The second item is one with which everyone is more or less familiar. It has been titled simply "Bead Stringing." The materials consist of a box of bright red beads, some of which are round, some oblong, and some cylindrical in shape. At the lower ages, scoring is based on the number of beads strung within a 2-minute time limit. At slightly higher levels, the subject is required to copy patterns which the examiner presents, and at the highest levels he is required to reproduce the presented patterns from memory.

The third item which has been titled "Pictorial Associations" is an attempt to gain an insight into the deaf child's ability to form associations of ideas or objects. Since this cannot be done with younger children through the use of language, pictures have been employed.

Two pictures of a similar nature are mounted on heavy cardboard. A recess has been left beside the second of the 2 pictures so that a third picture may be inserted. Four small pictures the same size as the mounted pictures are placed before the subject and called to his attention. He is then shown the mounted pictures, and the examiner motions for him to select 1 of the individual pictures to place in the recess alongside the 2 mounted pictures. Of course, 1 of the pictures presented in the 4 individual pictures is similar to the mounted picture and that is the one which he must select to get credit for his response. There are 12 such picture series, thus offering an interesting variety.

The fourth item is the "Block Building" item and demands the reproduction of drawn patterns which the examiner shows the subject. The materials consist of 16 bright yellow blocks and 8 cards with block patterns drawn on them. These patterns range, in difficulty, from the simple block tower of 3 blocks to a complex pattern demanding the use of all 16 blocks. Since the patterns must be reproduced from the picture instead of from a pattern constructed by the examiner in the subject's presence, it is more difficult and challenging. It demands the ability to visualize the blocks which are behind and thus not shown in the drawing.

The "Memory for digits" item is an attempt to use with the deaf child an item which is similar to the "Memory for digits" item of the Binet scale. The materials consist of two sets of $1\frac{1}{2}$ -inch digits mounted on heavy cardboard. The examiner arranges one set before

the subject and retains the other set for the purpose of presenting the desired series.

As a preliminary exercise the examiner presents a digit and then motions for the subject to find the same number in his series. After several such practices, the examiner presents a two-digit series such as 5-1 and again motions for the subject to select the corresponding numbers. Three such series are presented and the examiner is careful to insist that the subject arrange his selected numbers in the same order as those presented by the examiner.

After these preliminary exercises the examiner covers the subject's digits with the cardboard and presents a digit which the subject is allowed to view for a designated time. The digit and cardboard are then removed and the subject must produce the presented number from memory. This item increases in difficulty until as many as five digits are presented at one time. Where more than one digit is presented at the same time, there are three series at each level and success on any one gives the subject credit at that level. A method of scoring allows credit for series where the right numbers have been selected but not arranged in the right order, as well as for those where there has been an exact reproduction of the presented series.

The "Completion of drawings" item which is the sixth item of the scale is a page of 15 drawings each with a part missing. The drawings have been arranged in order of difficulty. The first drawing is a practice exercise and the missing part is shown to the subject. He is given a pencil and motions are made to indicate that he is to draw the missing part. If he does not understand, the examiner helps him to draw the desired part. The score is based upon the number of pictures which he completes satisfactorily. The difficulty of this item is such that it will not function below the age of 5.

The seventh group of items has been labeled "Pictorial Identification" and is perhaps more closely related to actual school activity than any other item of the scale. Five pictures of similar things such as flowers, or dogs, and so forth, are mounted side by side. The subject is shown this series of mounted pictures and then he is given an individual picture which is the exact reproduction of one of the mounted pictures. The subject must identify the corresponding picture in the mounted series. Four of the five parts of each series are given and since there are six series in this group the subject has an opportunity for 24 identifications. The item is too easy for the average deaf child above the age of 8.

The "Paper Folding" item was designed to see how well the child could follow a pattern or sequence of action presented by the examiner. The item presents seven different patterns of foldings varying from a single folding in pattern I to a complex folding in pattern VII. It again is not sufficiently difficult to function above the 8-year level.

The ninth type of item which has been titled "Visual attention span" has been an interesting part of the scale. Fifteen small pictures are arranged in a group before the subject and his attention is directed to the various pictures. The pictures are then covered with a cardboard and the subject is shown a mounted picture which is an exact duplicate of one of the previously presented group. After viewing it for a designated time, the picture and the cardboard are

removed and the subject must find the presented picture from among the group. The item increases in difficulty until at the higher levels the subject is presented a total of six mounted pictures at one time. Since the subject often does not have a name for each object, the task may be rather challenging.

Some insight into the subject's method of attack and problem-solving ability may be gained through watching his performance on the "puzzle blocks." The subject is shown a colored block which is placed on the table before him. He is then given a block which has been cut into 2 pieces and the examiner motions for him to put it together to make a block like the one previously presented. If he does not understand, the examiner puts it together for him and then indicates that the 2 blocks are alike. He then takes the block apart and has the subject put it together again. This is a practice exercise. The remaining disassembled blocks vary from 1 to 13 pieces and offer a high test-ceiling for this particular part of the scale.

The final item of the scale is one which to the knowledge of the speaker has not been tried with deaf children, especially at the lower levels. It has been labeled "pictorial analogies" and is similar to the "pictorial associations" in the manner in which it is presented. Two pictures of objects which go together are mounted side by side and then on the other side of a division strip a third picture is mounted and a recess is left for the insertion of a fourth picture. Four small individual pictures are placed before the subject and his attention called to them. Next he is shown the mounted pictures and the two parts of the mounted series are indicated. The examiner then motions for him to select one of the individual pictures and place it in the recess thus completing the analogy. There are 10 such analogies thus offering a variety. The item is so difficult that it will not function below the age of 5.

Every effort has been made to make the scale interesting to the subject and to closely parallel the tasks which these younger children do in school. The children enjoy the test and it discriminates the various age levels quite well. It takes approximately 1 hour to administer the entire scale. However, abbreviated forms have been selected which correlated .944 and .936 with the entire scale and can thus be used with considerable confidence. The abbreviated scales require about one-half hour to administer.

The record blank which is also a table of norms, has been patterned after the one devised by Hildreth and Pintner and insures that the mechanics of scoring and recording are quick and simple. The score is checked for each item and the score on the entire scale is the median of all the scores recorded.

While the age norm has been employed in this scale as the method of interpreting test results, the term "mental age" has not been used. The fact that numerous items of the test have been adopted because of their similarity to the abilities which the deaf child must exhibit in school and because the use of the mental age would undoubtedly tend to suggest a Binet mental age which in turn would suggest the corresponding mental age of the hearing child and thus lead to false comparisons, the term "learning age" is used instead. A learning age of 5-0 simply means that according to the results of of this test, the child is able to do those tasks which the average deaf child of 5 years is able to do, or

that he should be able to solve problems with the same efficiency as the average deaf 5-year old.

To date there has been no attempt to compare the intellectual development of deaf and hard-of-hearing children with that of hearing children through their respective responses to this scale. That has been reserved for later study. However, the speaker is of the opinion that the question of primary importance is not "How does the deaf child rank in comparison to the hearing child?" but rather, "How does the deaf child rank in comparison with other deaf children of his chronological age?"

The deaf child's training probably will never be identical with that of the hearing child. Therefore, the major problem is to find out as much as possible about the child at the beginning of his educational career and so plan for him that we will have a better adjusted child in a more efficient program. [Applause.]

Mr. WALKER. I am honored in introducing our next speaker this afternoon. For more than a hundred years her family has given distinguished service in educating the deaf of the United States. For many years she has been at Gallaudet College and is beloved not only by those who have attended that institution but by all in our profession.

It is a pleasure to have with us Dr. Peet, dean of women at Gallaudet College, to speak to us at this time.

Dr. PEET. Mr. Chairman, I feel it is a great pleasure for me to be introduced by a member of a family that itself is very distinguished in this work of teaching the deaf. The Walkers and the Peets have been friends for four generations, and I feel as if I had known this young man for more than 100 years. So, I am very happy this afternoon that Mr. Walker was the one chosen to introduce me to this audience. Thank you very much, Mr. Chairman.

THE IMPORTANCE OF PERSONALITY IN EVERYDAY LIVING

(Dr. ELIZABETH PEET, dean of women and professor of languages, Gallaudet College)

It is not the purpose of this paper to treat the subject of personality from a psychological standpoint. Such treatment must be left to others who have made the study of psychology their special field of interest. What it is proposed to do is to emphasize the importance of personality in everyday living, and to try to point out some of the ways in which we teachers of the deaf can help our pupils to attain a pleasing personality that will oil the wheels of the machinery of living.

It is generally admitted nowadays that, other things being equal, the individual who has a pleasing personality will go further than the one who may be just as well prepared for his particular line of work, but who lacks the savoir faire of the social amenities. This is attested to, in an address before the National Association of Deans of Women at Atlantic City, on February 18, 1941, by Margaret A. Hickey, a member of the Missouri Bar, and national education chairman of the National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs. In that address Miss Hickey said: "As in the past, the ability to get

along with fellow workers will be just as important to success as fundamental training."

To avoid misunderstanding, we must not confuse character and personality, though the latter is often (I do not say always) the outward expression of the former. I admit that the greatest rogue in the world may have the manners of a gentleman. On the other hand, a person whom we trust thoroughly for his dependability, whom we esteem for his innate honesty and other fine qualities, may, by his bluntness, unnecessarily and quite innocently wound some sensitive soul, or annoy an employer to the point of exasperation. So, I would make a plea that, in addition to training our young people in the cardinal virtues that go to make up a splendid character, we also teach them to "do and say the kindest thing in the kindest way."

One definition of "blunt" as given by the dictionary, is "abrupt in address; tactlessly curt or frank." In our endeavors to teach honesty and truthfulness is it not possible that we may sometimes overlook the need of teaching the desirability of a certain reserve? Is it important to express all our opinions, if by so doing we risk antagonizing the persons around us?

No one likes to be criticized harshly. Can we not show our pupils how to look for the good in their associates, and then seek to say as well as think pleasant things about them?

In this connection, a short time ago, a teacher not far from this platform was lecturing a group of boys about the importance of dressing properly. It was a hot day, and one could not blame the boys for the look of stubbornness that came over their faces—they simply were not going to button their collars and wear neckties. But when the teacher turned to say a few words of approbation of the neatness of one particular boy, the determination on each face faded away, and in a few minutes every member of the class was straightening up, and fastening his collar, and tying his cravat, and best of all, smiling. I think that teacher learned a lesson, too.

Bluntness is a positive and disagreeable trait that, if not halted in time, may wreck an otherwise attractive personality. Let us turn to its opposite—the quality of graciousness. Of what avail is it if we do a favor grudgingly? I have in mind two young friends, both of whom I admire greatly. Both are energetic and work hard, and are exceedingly valuable members of the community in which they live. If "Robert," as I will call him, is asked to help someone, he will work his fingers to the bone, to be of real and practical assistance, in case of need. If, however, it is merely a slight favor, which anyone else can do just as well, he will bluntly refuse, or perhaps argue at length, saying he "would like to do it but—" and then end up by agreeing, in a martyrlike manner. He explains his attitude frankly, by saying he does not want to make it too easy for people to ask favors of him; he does not intend to be imposed upon. The other young man, whom we will call "John," is just the opposite. He is equally unselfish, always doing things for others, but never saying anything about it. If you ask him to do a favor, he will do it so smilingly, that you are enchanted. If he cannot do it, he will tell you so, in such a gracious manner, that you would rather have a refusal from him than a grudgingly granted favor from Robert.

It would seem, then, that graciousness and cheerfulness are closely allied. Thomas Jefferson once wrote "Nothing is troublesome that we do willingly." A smile goes further than a scowl. A pleasant request gains more than a surly demand. A conciliatory manner achieves more than a belligerent attitude. Cooperation is the fruit of all this, and upon cooperation depends the happiness, indeed the success, of every group of persons.

There are other qualities that we need to impress upon our young people—personal cleanliness of mind and body, neatness and appropriateness of dress, general good grooming. These are all taught in our schools, I know, but our eternal vigilance must never be relaxed. Example, as well as precept, is important. A carelessly or inappropriately dressed person creates a poor impression, wherever he may be. A recent issue of the magazine *Life*, depicting scenes at Fort Bragg, N. C., has one illustration showing a natty young soldier putting the finishing touches to his attire. He is standing in front of a full-length mirror, above which in large letters are the words "Is your appearance a credit to your battery?" It would not be a bad idea for our schools to install something of the sort, substituting the word "school" or "class" for the word "battery."

Physical fitness should be stressed, in guiding our young people toward an agreeable personality. Often the disease that has caused their deafness leaves unpleasant results. Most of our schools are careful to have such conditions remedied. At Gallaudet College, we are particular to have teeth, eyes, and ears with their ramifications of nose, throat, and sinuses carefully treated when necessary, with doctors' directions as to home care followed up. Such conditions should be looked after, not only from the standpoint of health, but also from the standpoint of consideration for others. The individual must see the necessity for taking such care of himself in every way, physically, that he will not offend his neighbor in the classroom or elsewhere. Good posture must not be neglected. To "think tall, sit tall, stand tall, walk tall" will improve both health and appearance.

Politeness or good manners plays a large part in personality. By that I do not mean the fine points of etiquette, but what Sydney Smith calls "good nature, regulated by good sense." I mean the ordinary decencies of everyday life—respect for elders, silence and attention when others are speaking, especially in a public meeting, table manners, quietness in walking, poise—in short, consideration for others. As the adage has it "True courtesy springs from the heart." Among other things let us train the child, be he deaf or hearing, to look straight into the eyes of the person to whom he is talking. A shifting eye, a wavering glance, denote inattention and a lack of interest, both of which are uncomplimentary. In a book that I have found helpful, *Building Your Personality*, by Hattie Marie Marsh, there is the statement that "Eye contact is essential in conversation, whether the audience is one or a thousand."

Do we see to it that our pupils are "emotionally controlled"? Indeed, are we teachers ourselves, always "emotionally controlled"? Do we explain to our boys and girls that small mannerisms and fussy habits are both useless and unpleasant; that too vigorous signs are just as distracting and vulgar as loud talking would be? Some of these points that have been mentioned are so obvious that it might

be thought that they could be omitted entirely. However, such flagrant examples of the lack of training, or forgetfulness of what has been learned, have been brought to my attention lately, that I believe they should be emphasized. One is the necessity for quiet attention at lectures and public programs of all kinds, already mentioned. Hands and arms gesticulating wildly, or even fingers moving quietly in the manual alphabet, among the audience, may be disturbing to the speaker—particularly to a guest speaker not used to the ways of our schools for the deaf. Dignity and quiet manners, especially in the street and other public places, must be inculcated. I consider this is even more important for the deaf than for the hearing, as even the natural gestures of the deaf tend to attract attention. I suppose there is no one who loves the beautiful and expressive language of signs more than I do. My family has used it freely for four generations, but, like cultured speech, it must be restrained. I could talk indefinitely on this one subject alone, but that is another story. I mention it here, because in the lives of our deaf pupils the manner in which they use the sign language does affect their personality, just as exaggerated speech, as in mouthing and uncouth sounds, also affects it.

There are two elements in everyday living that make or mar our happiness and success. One is friendship and the other is work. Both depend largely upon personality. The friendships that we form in school and college are often those that are strongest and best. Responsiveness, thoughtfulness for others, loyalty to our family, our friends, our school, our employers, our town and more especially in these troublous times, our country, will help cement those bonds of friendship, and make our work more worthy and enduring. But before we can hope to hold a job, we must get one. Dean Francis Spaulding, of the Harvard Graduate School, has said, "Today there are three factors upon which the youth obtains a job—luck, knowing the right people, and personality—how he looks and how he talks." And Dr. Gulielma Alsop of Barnard College adds "Distinction lies in excellence not in eccentricity."

In conclusion, may I quote from Walter Dietz, personnel relations manager for the Western Electric Co. He is speaking of the successful woman executive, but his words may be applied equally well to the successful teacher, whether man or woman. He says: "Leading instead of bossing—teaching instead of telling—listening more, talking and arguing less—more frankness and less diplomacy—start with trust in place of suspicion—understanding instead of logic." Are not these traits that we might all do well to cultivate in ourselves? There is no doubt that the personality of the teacher is reflected in that of the child. If it is true, as the French say, that "Precept begins, example completes," then it is also true that the importance of personality in everyday living is clearly seen in the lives of both teacher and pupil. May we so live that our boys and girls, when they leave school and become part of the great world outside, will remember to carry with them our precepts and examples and act in accordance with them. [Applause.]

Mr. WALKER. Dr. Peet, I am sure that the applause of your audience will speak to you and show you how much we appreciate your fine and very thoughtful address this afternoon. Thank you so much for speaking to us.

At this time we are going to have one of the outstanding deaf people of our Nation to speak to us. It is a pleasure to welcome the Reverend Mr. Fletcher to this platform, who will speak on Character and Moral Training of the Deaf. [Applause.]

CHARACTER AND MORAL TRAINING OF THE DEAF

(Rev. ROBERT C. FLETCHER, Episcopal Missionary to the Deaf, Birmingham, Ala.)

Mr. Chairman and friends of the convention, feeling as I do now, I count myself happy to have the privilege of talking with you about what I believe to be the most important and fundamental problem in our common task of educating, guiding, and training the deaf boys and girls committed to our charge. The fact that they are looked upon by the world as being handicapped through their deafness, and are limited in their effective contacts with the outside world, places all the greater responsibility upon us for their guidance in developing a well-rounded personality.

BASIC PRINCIPLES

Before we consider particular plans and methods, let us first determine the basic principles and assumptions on which our work in this respect is founded.

(1) The first basic principle or axiom is the assumption that moral character is indeed an essential element in education. Unless we are wholeheartedly convinced of this fact, we may easily become discouraged when we face the practical difficulties which will confront us. And in this belief we are at one with the best educational thinkers of the ages. Plato, the wisest of the Greeks, said 2,500 years ago that the purpose of education is "to give to the body and to the soul all the beauty and perfection of which they are capable"—in other words, education is not merely developing the mind or storing the memory or training the hands; it includes the beauty and perfection of the soul or moral character.

Again, Herbert Spencer, one of the greatest modern thinkers in education, said that the purpose of education is "to prepare us for complete living." And we all know that a person without moral character is not living a complete and normal life. A well-known American educator said that a person who is educated in mind but not in morals is a menace to society; and many of us remember the story of the two Chicago boys, Leopold and Loeb, a few years ago, who were brilliant students intellectually, leading their classes, but who shocked the moral conscience of America by deliberately torturing and killing their young friend, Bobby Frank, merely for the thrill of seeing him suffer and die. The training of the mind without the development of the heart and conscience produces a social monster, a danger to humankind. It would be easy to point out illustrations of this fact from current European history.

(2) Our second basic assumption is that religion is an important factor in building character. George Washington in his Farewell Address warned his countrymen against entertaining the hope of building moral character upon a nonreligious basis, and only a few years ago President Eliot, of Harvard University, said: "If you omit

religion from education, you have no foundation on which to build moral character." In Japan, and also in France, educators have experimented with teaching a system of morals not based on a religious faith, and in both cases it has proved a disastrous failure. If morality is an essential element in education, then religion is a necessary foundation for morality.

(3) Our third assumption is that religion is essentially the worship of a Divine Being—not merely the holding of some theological dogma, or the performing of a religious ceremony, or the living of a moral life. There is something in human life that demands that we worship a Being higher than ourselves, and that this be made the basis of our conduct toward others. The greatest Teacher and Preacher of all, 1900 years ago, said that there are just two great commandments: to love God and to love others; and He put the love of God first, not because it is in itself the most important, but because it is the foundation for love of others.

(4) A fourth principle that we should remember is that character is not built by giving rules and commandments, but requires motivation by inner ideals and purposes. To know what is right is one thing, but to do it is quite another, as many of us may have discovered in our own experience. Therefore, it is not sufficient merely to prepare a perfect code of moral conduct and then have this memorized by the students. It must be presented to them so that they will want to live up to it; they will accept it as an ideal which they seek to attain rather than a rule which they may try to evade. Therefore, our moral instruction must include not merely rules of conduct but also an ideal, inwardly and voluntarily accepted by the pupil. This means that whatever instruction we give him must appeal to his imagination and affection as well as to his understanding and memory. We must help him through the power of imagination and his instinctive response to affection to form ideals of noble living based on the biography of others, and (even more important) the example of those around him to whom he is naturally attached.

This means also that one of the most powerful—I might almost say the most powerful—of educational influences surrounding the child is the personality of his teacher. We teach more by our walk than we do by our talk.

And we need to remember that an ounce of example is worth a ton of precept. Therefore, one of the most important considerations in the selection of teachers is to get those whose lives are in accordance with the ideals we seek to impress, and this means not only consistent living but also a friendly relationship with, and interest in, the pupils.

(5) One other maxim should be kept in mind in the teaching and guiding of our boys and girls, and that is that impression should lead to expression. Ideals should be interpreted and applied in everyday life, and it is not sufficient merely to memorize moral precepts, the students must be guided in applying them in their daily work and play. A moral principle becomes a part of life not when it is memorized, but when it is expressed in action. It is the doing, not purely memorizing, that results in true learning.

OBJECTIVES

With these principles in mind we may formulate our general objectives in the moral training and character development of boys and girls.

(1) Believing as I do that a vital religious faith is the necessary foundation of effective character training, I would say that our first objective should be to develop a growing realization of the presence, power, and love of God in everyday living. This is the essence of religion and the true foundation for moral character. To attain this objective based on the five principles above, we need to build a church on our school campus. Allow the children to enter the church in reverent prayer whenever they wish. Give them the same environment their sisters and brothers have at home. All services conducted by different denominations and by religious societies should be held in this church so the children will know where to find God and from observation and practice develop a realization of the presence, power, and love of God.

(2) Our second objective is to develop in them an attitude of love, trust, and obedience to parents and others in authority over them. If they have an attitude of love and trust toward their parents and teachers, there will be no difficulty about the habit of obedience. This can be accomplished by organizing a parent-teacher group which should meet in your school every month during the school year. The parents of the children could visit oftener and help the teacher study their child while becoming familiar with the system of teaching. The deaf child frequently has unsatisfactory relations with his parents due to the unusual difficulty of accurate communication caused by his handicap. The Good Book says, "If we walk in the light, we have fellowship one with another."

(3) The third objective is to train children in the practice of truthfulness, justice, generosity, and cooperation in their relations with others. A school, especially a residential school, should be a miniature world for them, for in this world they must learn to get along with each other. It is only through practice of the qualities of truthfulness, justice, generosity, and cooperation that they can live happily and effectively together. This can be carried out if the teachers will associate with the children more and also if the schools can have better trained supervisors or deans of the boys and girls. We have training schools for teachers but none for those supervisors who are with the children most of the time. Where are those supervisors and house mothers who used to call the children in line before bedtime and have them kneel a few minutes in prayer near their beds?

(4) A fourth objective is to make prayer and the reading of the Holy Scriptures a daily and vital part of life. This is done (at least superficially) by chapel exercises, but it is important that the Scripture lessons read should be carefully selected with a view to their interest, intelligibility, and practicality for the boys and girls. The prayer must be a devotional expression not merely a perfunctory exercise. And we should never be content with only a public and general use of prayer and the Bible; these should become a part of the individual's daily life. To accomplish this will require much patient personal work by a tactful and friendly teacher. Train the

children to find pages, books, chapters, verses, stories, and expressions in the Bible by using the Bible Concordance.

(5) A fifth objective should be the formation of desirable habits in the practical affairs of life—such habits, for example, as punctuality, neatness, orderliness, accuracy, and so forth. Handicapped as these children are, it is all the more important for their success in life that they should make themselves outstanding in these desirable qualities in the business world. Many schools are having difficulty in training their children because supervisors and teachers are trying to make the children obey rules which they themselves break openly right before them. For instance, children are not allowed to smoke, but their superiors smoke near them very often.

(6) As a sixth objective the necessity for adequate knowledge and right attitudes in regard to sex is generally recognized, but there is still much need for greater emphasis upon early and wise guidance in this respect. The important thing is to see to it that they get the requisite knowledge at an early age when it is not colored by evil associations and emotional complexes and to see to it that they combine factual knowledge with pure and ideal attitudes. Knowing it as an accepted fact that the deaf learn by observation, it is best to take the boys to State asylums and tell them why breaking rules of health has driven some of the inmates insane. Take the girls to some home for unmarried girls who are expecting children. Permission for entrance to these places can be obtained if you show the right attitude and explain your purpose in training your children. It would be still better if you would take the older children to hospital wards and show them the effects of sinning. This cause can be greatly benefited, and the boys and girls guided more easily, if you will organize a social guidance club for the older students in your school. The teacher who supervises this club should be above reproach in character and should be a married woman and the mother of children.

SPECIFIC METHODS

In checking over the replies to a questionnaire which I sent out in preparation for this address, I found a large number of channels are being used for the imparting of moral instruction and guidance in character development. Just to indicate something of the wide range and variety of methods used, I will mention some of them:

- Literary society.
- Dramatic club.
- Pupil-sponsored school paper.
- Social entertainments.
- Christian Endeavor Society.
- Young Men's Christian Association and Young Women's Christian Association.
- Sunday schools (outside and inside of schools).
- Chapel lectures daily, weekly, and monthly.
- Moving pictures.
- Boy and Girl Scout troops.
- Campfire Girls.
- Girl Reserves.
- 4-H Clubs.
- School band.
- Hi-Y Club.
- Student council.
- Dancing.
- Junior Red Cross.

Girls' and boys' athletic associations.
 Assembly program (given by pupils).
 Festivals (given by teachers and pupils).
 Exhibitions (given by teachers and pupils).
 Social guidance club.
 Tours (by pupils with teachers as guides).
 Preaching by local pastors.
 Preaching and lectures by deaf missionaries.
 Hobby clubs.
 Banquets, picnics, outings, teas, and birthday parties.

Let us say, however, that while these activities are valuable, and I am mentioning them in order to commend them to your use, insofar as your opportunities and needs may indicate, these activities are not in themselves the material of religious and moral training. They are simply channels and opportunities through which we may bring to the children the character-building content that they need. The basic principles and objectives which I have already discussed indicate what we should seek to develop in the child; these activities that I have just listed are simply the machinery, the tools, which we may utilize in attaining these objectives. I wish to emphasize the fact merely having one or more of these clubs, organizations, or activities going on in the school is no guaranty that we are accomplishing anything worth while in character, any more than a plow by the barn door is a guaranty that the farmer is raising a crop; it is simply an instrument which he may, if he will, use in that process. Clubs, organizations, programs, activities, and so forth, are always to be regarded as means, not ends, as instruments, not as results. Used in that spirit they can be extremely helpful; but if they are regarded as being in themselves the content and objective of our educational process, they are of little or no value. The organization is the plow; but "the seed is the Word of God."

I therefore urge that we make full use of such agencies as church attendance, showing reverence when in or passing by a church building, reverently observing or participating in such church services as have a dramatic and impressive ritual, accompanying teachers and supervisors to church, becoming familiar with great masterpieces of religious art, perhaps sharing in a religious pageant or drama after careful preparation, depicting Bible stories, and other methods by which the spirit of religion may enter the heart through the eye and be impressed by dramatic action.

In conclusion I want to give you this little poem by Marion B. Craig which so well expresses the glory and dignity of the work to which we are called:

MY OPPORTUNITY

My opportunity; Dear Lord, I do not ask
 That Thou shouldst give me some high work of Thine,
 Some noble calling, or some wondrous task—
 Give me a little hand to hold in mine.
 I do not ask that I should ever stand
 Among the wise, the worthy, or the great;
 I only ask that, softly, hand in hand,
 A child and I may enter at Thy gate.
 Give me a little child to point the way
 Over the strange, sweet path that leads to Thee;
 Give me a little voice to teach to pray;
 Give me two shining eyes Thy face to see.

The only crown I ask, dear Lord, to wear,
 Is this—that I may teach a little child
 How beautiful, O, how divinely fair
 Is Thy dear face, so loving, sweet, and mild!
 I do not need to ask for more than this,
 My opportunity! 'Tis standing at my door;
 What sorrow if this blessing I should miss!
 A little child! Why should I ask for more?

[Applause.]

Mr. WALKER. Thank you, Mr. Fletcher, for this earnest and inspiring address.

This now concludes the business of our session, and we shall now adjourn until this evening.

(Whereupon, at 4:10 p. m., the convention adjourned.)

GENERAL SESSION, WEDNESDAY NIGHT, JUNE 25

Athletic Field, Missouri School, 8:15 p. m.

Presiding: Madison J. Lee, superintendent, Kentucky School for the Deaf.
 Specialty.

Address: A Pattern of Education for the World Today, Dr. Ralph H. Woods, State director of vocational education, Kentucky.

The Wednesday night general session convened at 8:15 p. m. on the athletic field, Missouri School for the Deaf, Mr. Madison J. Lee presiding.

Mr. LEE. The first thing on our program this evening is a special number. I don't know what it is, but I will announce a specialty number.

(A specialty dance number was performed.)

Mr. LEE. I have been requested to read two telegrams:

Members of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf: Hearty congratulations and best wishes for the utmost success in the splendid work in which you are engaged. It would have given me much pleasure to be present in person with you once again, but we are just now experiencing the delightful confusion of moving to our old home in Austin, where I met my life's beloved helpmate, where my children were born, and where I spent 27 years of the happiest and most fruitful years of the 59 I devoted to the education of the deaf.

J. W. BLATTNER.

[Applause.]

Mr. TRUMAN INGLE,

Superintendent of the School for the Deaf, Fulton, Mo.:

I am sure you are having a most successful convention. Sorry to miss it. Best regards.

E. R. ABERNATHY,
Columbus, Ohio.

[Applause.]

Mr. LEE. We have the pleasure of having a Kentucky gentleman address this convention, and I want to take a few minutes to tell you something about this man. I am sorry that he was not fortunate enough to be born in Kentucky, but he happened to be born in Grayson County, Va., which is a pretty good place. He was a teacher of agriculture and principal of the high school at La Center, Ky., and for 10 years

following that was professor of agricultural education at the University of Kentucky.

His present position in Kentucky is that of State director of vocational education. He is also a member of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. He is chairman of the Committee on Extension of Vocational Education Relationships. He is giving a large portion of his time at present as administrative assistant on the staff of the Advisory Commission to the Council of National Defense, and will have to rush from this meeting to go to Washington on a defense program. In 1939 he was president of the American Vocational Association. He is now a member of the executive committee of the American Vocational Association. He has served as vice president representing agriculture and also as secretary-treasurer of the National Association of State Directors of Vocational Education.

He has recently spoken in a number of States, some of which are Vermont, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Tennessee, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Oklahoma, Texas, Georgia, Wisconsin, and California. Seeing how very busy he is and how many calls he has, I think we are most fortunate indeed in having him come to our convention to tell us something about the pattern of education. It is my real pleasure to introduce to you now Dr. Ralph H. Woods, of Kentucky. [Applause.]

A PATTERN OF EDUCATION FOR THE WORLD TODAY

(Dr. RALPH H. WOODS, State director of vocational education, Kentucky)

Since the days of Washington and Jefferson, thinking men and women have believed that public education has the responsibility of enabling the individual to function as a citizen in a self-governing society. The democratic ideal features the individual as king or queen. Authority is from men to man, rather than from man to a few men. This and the other phases of our democratic way of life we mean to protect from enemies without and dangers within. For yesterday we are thankful. To tomorrow we look forward with hope. Today is ours to use in light of yesterday for an enriched today and tomorrow. We must plan and carry out a pattern of education that will contribute effectively to the actual needs of society today. This is our best preparation for the world of tomorrow.

In formulating and carrying out a pattern of education, we must be concerned with two things: First, what learnings to secure; and second, how to secure these learnings effectively. Education implies contemplated products in learning, not merely byproducts that may possibly be worth something. Much of the content of courses in the secondary schools of this country has been justified on the theory that it may be indirectly valuable or valuable at some future time. Knowledge is valuable only if it enters into the production of worthwhile abilities and desirable attitudes. The outcomes of a process are known as products. We must, therefore, be concerned with not only how, but what—the products of education. To me, there are two primary products. These are abilities and attitudes. Any ability must be made up of both knowledge and skill. Certain abilities will be largely knowledge and others may be largely skill. The ability to write; that is, to formulate letters is made up of knowledge and skill. One must know how the letters are made and then possess skill in making

them if he is to be a good penman. The ability to cook, to sew, to lay a concrete walk, to repair linotype machines, or any of the other thousands of needed abilities requires both knowledge and skill. The other primary product, as I have already said, I believe to be attitudes. Attitudes consist of appreciation and understanding. Attitudes are needed as much as abilities and must go hand in hand with abilities if people are to be efficient and happy.

The citizen in a democracy needs to possess effective abilities in all the areas of desirable human activity. He needs to be proficient in health, in civic activities, in social activities, in recreational activities, in general economic activities, in vocational activities, and all other groups of human activity. Vocational activities were for many years neglected in the total educational pattern of the secondary schools of America. In recent years much progress has been made in providing opportunities for people to develop the vocational abilities they need. The present world conflict and the wave of preparedness sentiment which we are undergoing at the present time have served to shock us into an awareness of how precious is the skill of human hands. Many people have seemed to believe that idleness is life's ultimate blessing, that work is a spiritual curse, something to be avoided as much as possible. Let me say to you that work offers most of us the greatest opportunity for self-expression, and self-expression is probably the greatest thing, life has to offer.

When we discuss a pattern of education that includes specific training for vocations, we are ever reminded by the status quo conservatives that we live in a changing world. Many people have said that because we live in a changing world we cannot educate specifically, that if a person is trained for a specific vocation by the time he or she is ready to enter that vocation the vocation will no longer exist. The people who fear a changing world are resisting change. Human nature tends to remain in the folk-ways, and we in education have been relatively slow to accept new developments in the pattern of education. Prof. Paul R. Mort, Teachers College, Columbia University, and his associate, Dr. Francis G. Cornell, made a list of 183 things that most educators agreed a school should do. After a 3-year study, they reported their findings in a recent teachers' college publication entitled "American Schools in Transition." Some of their findings are as follows: "Only one-tenth of the 183 modern practices were in 90 percent of the schools. Only one-fourth were used in as many as one-half of the schools. Most of the schools were at least 50 years behind the times. It evidently takes about 50 years to get a needed new idea tried out and another 50 to get it widely adopted."

As a message for those who fear a change and who fear being too specific in our educational program, may I suggest that you tell them that 50 years ago in South Bend, Ind., there was an organization known as the Studebaker Wagon Works. In this organization there was a group of workers known as spoke makers. They made spokes for wagons and buggies. Then the automobile and the truck came along and fewer buggies were used and fewer wagons were needed. What happened to the spoke makers? They changed over to an automobile factory and continued to make spokes for automobiles. You may say that we no longer use spokes in automobiles, but let me remind you that we did use spokes exclusively in automobiles up until 1925. Last year there were four or five thousand jobs for Diesel engine operators.

We frequently read advertisements which would indicate that Diesel engine work is altogether different from gas engine operation. There were several thousand people in training for Diesel engine jobs and who do you suppose got the jobs? The four or five thousand people who already knew gasoline engines. Who got the jobs last year in the field of air conditioning? People already skilled in steam fitting, plumbing, and electricity. There are many vocations today which were not listed in the occupational dictionary a decade ago, but they are for the most part children of an old parent vocation.

Let me emphasize that education must be specific. We do not learn generally, but we generalize by associating several specifics, and please remember that it is much easier for a person to change from something to something than it is from nothing to something. Carrying this fear of a changing world a bit further, in view of the fact that vocations change, since maps change, and since even the spelling of a word may change, the conservatives might therefore conclude that we should not attempt to secure learning now, but wait because we cannot know what learning to secure. Some people contend that the sole purpose of education is that the learner may learn to learn. One cannot learn to learn without learning something. He cannot come to possess a learned ability without acquiring it by learning. The ability to learn a new mode of behavior, in most instances, largely depends upon what has been learned before. New meanings are built out of old meanings. In solving the problems of the world today, one must draw heavily on previous experiences. Vocations, environment, and society do change. Unless and until we reach perfection or Utopia, we shall continue to hope for a change. The right kind of education today will help us to bring about needed changes for increasing the effectiveness of our civilization. If we do not change our pattern of education to meet the needs of real people, then we shall probably experience Bacon's statement, which was, "He that will not apply new remedies must expect new evils."

In 1931, President Robert M. Hutchins, of the University of Chicago, in speaking of existing social and economic conditions and what might be done to correct them said: "That we have been unable to manage the structure we have erected is a reflection on the educational system we have developed. If our educational program were such as to enable us to live intelligently in the world at present we should have no difficulty in managing a democracy or anything else." We cannot help our fellow free men live effectively in the world today by still pretending that we live in an earlier and simpler world. Dr. Clarence A. Dykstra said a few weeks ago, "I am convinced that our so-called youth problem springs not only from a scarcity of jobs, but from a failure to train youth intelligently, and to guide them efficiently into an actual job market." Our experience with the out-of-school rural and nonrural youth defense training program lends evidence to the accuracy of this statement. Many young men, after going through a training period of 8 weeks, 15 hours a week, have found jobs where no jobs apparently existed before they received the training. We should not overlook the fact that wages and salaries must be in accord with production efficiency. People cannot have much or receive much without producing much.

Much of our educational program in the past instead of preparing the individual for life as a participating citizen in a dynamic society has continued to give emphasis to the continental purpose of propagating intellectualism. We need to understand more clearly the relationship and the responsibility of education to the problems that are confronting us today. Can we visualize a pattern of education in which formalized stereotyped programs will be loosed from their moorings and changed into dynamic functioning programs of education concerned with the problems of the world today? Can we visualize the schools as an agency helping the people of a community or a county or a State solve the real problem with which they are confronted?

Last fall, a person connected with one of the Government agencies asked me if the schools would take the lead in formulating a program to help people solve their own problems. He said that it seemed to him that the schools were the logical agency to accept the responsibility of leadership in this undertaking and that if they would once accept it other agencies could join them and cooperate with them in planning and building programs for improving communities through improving people. The only way to educate is to direct people in solving problems with which they are confronted here and now.

A short time ago, I was discussing with a group of people in education the possibility of the schools helping people solve real problems and I went so far as to say that the evaluation of our work should not be in the terms of the number of periods taught, number of books in the library, the amount of equipment in the laboratory, the value of machinery in the shop, but in terms of physical evidences of learning in the homes, on the farms, in the factory, in everyday life. At this point, one of the persons in the conference suggested that we should not lose sight of the fact that we are an educational agency. I pondered this statement for I have heard it many times. What does it mean—we are an educational agency? Is it a foregone conclusion that an educational agency cannot be and should not be a doing or action agency? Is education to lead to nothing beyond itself? Are no gates to be built, no terraces constructed, no closets built, no homes improved while learning? Are no poems or essays for publication to be written while one is undergoing the educational process? Must learning be completely isolated and insulated from real life?

I heard the president of a woman's college in one of the Eastern States speaking over the radio last fall and her appeal to girls to come to her institution was that girls would be secluded from the real problems and worries of life. If they would come to her college, they could spend 4 years away from the world, as we know it today. They would find a haven and an escape from it all. I can think of no more serious indictment against the pattern of our college education than the indictment which she unwittingly made. More recently, I have had conferences with persons representing several Federal and State agencies and when the question came up about what an agency can do and should do to meet the impacts of the present emergency, agencies were immediately classified as educational and doing or action agencies. If education is to serve the world effectively today, we must visualize a pattern of education that involves doing and action. The only way to educate is through doing. We learn to do by doing. We learn to do

what we do. One who loafs is learning to loaf, the boy adding on his fingers is learning to add on his fingers. If an individual is solving health problems or civic problems, he is learning to deal successfully with these problems. Education must be a constructive force and influence in improving the conditions of man. I hope that you have in mind the concept that education is to prepare individuals for living rather than to prepare them for more education. Even though education must be continuous, people have to deal with real life situations while they are being educated.

Education conducted separately and apart from the problems of life will probably result in a product unable to deal successfully with the situations found in real life. The only way to educate is to direct people in solving real life problems. The excuse for teachers to stay in the classroom is to direct learners in finding out what to do outside the classroom and to help provide activities that will enable them to develop the abilities that will equip them for their share of the world's work. Education should provide opportunities for the individual to develop proficiency in all the activities in which a citizen in a democracy like ours should engage. Will we be wise enough to see what needs to be done; alert and aggressive enough to do the job?

We shall have to concern ourselves with the areas of human activity rather than with subjects. We should not feel that subjects that have been in the curriculum or the program of studies for many years are sacred, but we should be willing to take certain areas of human activity and try to discover the difficulties and problems with which the people of a specific community are confronted. Then formulate a school program that will help them solve these problems, and in solving them they will learn to solve these and similar problems with which they will be confronted in the world of tomorrow. No one ever has a problem until he encounters a difficulty.

We probably have too many high schools, but I do not take the position that we should continue to consolidate if the high schools are large enough for an efficient program. The school must be of the community, by the community, and for the community. One-third of the people of America are farm people. We should not overlook the fact that the well-being of all America is intimately tied up with the well-being of farm people. To emphasize this point, let me call your attention to the fact that from 1929 to 1933 the retail sales in places under 10,000 dropped exactly the same percent as the farmer's income. The rural people of America are rearing the children to carry on the world's work in urban centers. As you will note, the large centers do not maintain their populations by birth. New York County, N. Y., has an index of natural increase of 58, while one of our counties in Kentucky has an index of 266. We must, therefore, be interested in providing adequate educational facilities for farm people, who are the future citizens of America. We need increased efficiency on farms; we need to protect farms. Authorities tell us that the South alone is losing more than \$3,000,000 worth of topsoil a year by erosion. This is not merely a loss of income, but a loss of irreplaceable capital. Farmers are also losing equity to the farms they farm. In 1880 the equity of owners of real estate in this country was 62 percent. In 1940 the equity was 37 percent. The schools of America must help farm

people to solve these problems. What can happen and what may happen in America during the next quarter of a century are of major concern to the schools. If our pattern of education is effective, we shall have fewer of Steinbeck's Joads and fewer city bread lines.

For many years, we have had the slogan in America "Education for all the children of all the people." We must change that slogan now and merely say "Education for all the people." I visualize a pattern of education that would have schools located advantageously so that learning opportunities for all people in all the areas of human activity can be provided. Schools should not be closed at 2, 3, or 4 o'clock, but should be kept open in the late afternoon and in the evening for courses, for recreational opportunities, for social opportunities. All these are learning opportunities. The school library should be open to all the people of the community at times when they can come to the school. It will be much cheaper for America to direct effectively the activities of people and provide them with something worth while to do in their spare time than attempt to correct misdeeds many of which are paid for in the cost of crime.

I have emphasized the matter of education for work. We may well make this the "midrib in the leaf." A pattern of education for work is rather well established. It needs only to be expanded to serve all the people. This includes a functioning program of vocational agriculture with considerable emphasis on farm shops in every rural high school serving farm people. We should likewise have an effective program of vocational homemaking in every high school in every State. We need a program of industrial arts, especially in urban centers which will serve all people and as prevocational work for trade courses. We need trade courses to prepare people specifically for trade and industrial occupations.

Trade schools will be located primarily in urban areas. But, in addition to the outstanding city trade schools, we need to have area trade schools to serve rural people. Not all of the people who are born on farms or in rural areas in this country can expect to stay and find employment in the community in which they are born. Rural people rear the majority of the children. It is estimated that during the past 10 years 7 out of 10 of the new workers have come from rural areas. It is too expensive for each rural school to set up a trade program. These area trade schools should be close enough so that a majority of the people can be transported to them. For those who live in outlying sections, provision should be made for their maintenance or partial maintenance at these schools. As far as the schools for the deaf are concerned, much progress has already been made in establishing area schools. Sometimes the area school serves an entire State. This, in many cases, is necessary. From what I know of the schools for the deaf, they are most efficiently operated. They train effectively, they are rendering a great service. Their facilities need to be expanded and the Federal Government and the States should accept the responsibility of financing adequate educational programs for people who are deaf. In going a bit further with this pattern of education, I should like to suggest in many instances we need to give increased emphasis to miscellaneous or diversified occupations courses and to the distributive occupations courses. Such programs are now under way. We need more of them.

The programs of education for earning a living in industrial and distributive occupations must be operated in cooperation with labor and employers. Not only do we need to expand our vocational program, but we need to endeavor to make more effective adequate educational facilities that will serve all the areas of desirable human activity. There is much talk about a more abundant life. I think we should realize the relationship between making a better living and living a more abundant life. It is true that people do not live by bread alone, but we should not overlook the fact that it is difficult to live without bread. The world wakes up hungry every morning, and it must eat. Programs of education must be broad enough and flexible enough to prepare learners to capture a sunset or to thread a pipe. Ours is the task of preserving the freedom of opportunity of the individual, to develop the abilities and attitudes he needs in order to serve, and to accumulate and to enjoy the fruits of his accomplishments. Leadership is more needed today than ever before in the history of our country. People in the totalitarian nations have accepted dictators largely because they felt the need of leadership. In my opinion, we are truly at the crossroads. Public education can accept the challenge, formulate a pattern of education that will serve the people effectively, and become a live, dynamic, indispensable service of preparing people to live effectively in a democracy, or we can turn a deaf ear and take the consequences.

In countries in which education has failed to assume its responsibility while there was yet time, the schools have been subjected to propaganda and dogma. Their independence has been shorn away, their program curtailed, and the personnel reduced to positions of servitude. It will take all the ingenuity, all the careful thinking and planning of which we are capable, if we are to protect the freedoms we are now enjoying. We must continue to build on the unexcelled heritage which is ours. Our pattern of education cannot be blue-printed. I am not pleading for uniformity, but I am asking that you take an inventory of your philosophy and evaluate the present pattern of education in light of its service to individuals in the world today. I am sure you will do your part in remaking the pattern of education and that you will rally and lead your fellow teachers and fellow Americans wherever they may be, to the end that we may all do our part in the gigantic task of developing in the people of our Nation the abilities and attitudes they need to live effectively and happily in a democracy today and tomorrow. [Applause.]

Mr. LEE. I am sure everyone will agree with me we have just heard a great address. Dr. Woods has given us many things to think about, and I am sure that his contribution to our convention will be worth a great deal to us, not only tonight, but through all the years that we are working in trying to educate the deaf.

On behalf of this convention and for myself, personally, I want to thank Dr. Woods for this splendid address.

The meeting is now adjourned.

(Whereupon, at 9:30 p. m. the convention was adjourned until Thursday morning.)

THURSDAY, JUNE 26, 1941**DEMONSTRATIONS, 9-9:50 A. M.**

Arithmetic: Primary arithmetic, Mary Bach, Florida School; advanced arithmetic, Bessie L. Pugh, Florida School.

Art: Posters, Geneva B. Llewellyn, Wisconsin School.

Auricular training: Mrs. Harvey B. Barnes, Illinois School.

Language: Steps in teaching direct and indirect discourse, Enfield Joiner, St. Mary's School; straight language, M. Adelaide Coffey, West Virginia School.

Preschool and kindergarten: Margaret Scyster, Illinois School.

Reading: Reading with the delineascope, for lower intermediate grades, Evelyn Lynes, Missouri School.

Rhythm: Honora Carroll and Virginia Hammond, Gallaudet School, St. Louis, Mo.

Speech: Josephine Avondino, A. G. Bell School, Chicago, Ill.

Visual education: Use of visual aids in social studies, intermediate children, Susan Christian, Indiana School.

SECTION MEETINGS, 10-10:50 A. M.**SUPERVISION**

Leader: Sarah E. Lewis, Beverly School; chairman, Harry L. Welty, Nebraska School.

Paper: Problems of Selection and Interpretation of Intelligence Tests, Richard G. Brill, principal, Virginia School; discussion, Mrs. Wilbur Bennett, Nebraska School.

PRESCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN

Leader: Virginia Rosser, Gough School, San Francisco, Calif.; chairman, Mary French Pearce, Missouri School.

Paper: The Nursery School—the Period of Learning Readiness, Mary C. New, Lexington School, New York City.

Paper: An Experiment on the Play of Nursery School Deaf and Hearing Children, Carmen Klorer, Central Institute.

SPEECH DEVELOPMENT

Leader: Jennie M. Henderson, principal, Horace Mann School, Roxbury, Mass.; presiding, Amelia De Motte, Illinois School.

Paper: Development of Speech by the Tadoma Method, Sophia K. Alcorn, assistant principal, Detroit Day School.

Paper: Exposition and Plans for Definite Work in Intermediate and Advanced Grades in Speech, Enfield Joiner, St. Mary's School, Buffalo, N. Y.

Colored film and paper: Activities in Speech Correction Classes in Detroit Public Schools, Hildred Gross, Detroit, Mich.

AURICULAR TRAINING AND RHYTHM

Leader: Marshall S. Hester, California School; chairman, E. W. Tillinghast, superintendent, Arizona School.

Paper: Beginning the Acoustic Training Program, Elizabeth Hughes Johnson, supervising, acoustic department, Illinois School.

Discussion: Josephine Bennett, Lexington School; Mary Scott Russel, Louisiana School.

CURRICULUM CONTENT

Leader: Roy G. Parks, Georgia School.

Paper: Skills and Attitudes of Reading and Their Development, Josephine Bennett, Lexington School.

Paper: Reading in the Primary Department, Marie S. Kennard, supervising, primary department, Georgia School.

Paper: Reading in the Primary and Intermediate Departments, Margaret R. Paris, Georgia School.

Paper: Reading in the Advanced Department of the Georgia School for the Deaf, Kathryn V. Watson, Georgia School.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Leader: Arthur G. Norris, Missouri School.

Panel discussion: Do We Need Data on Employment Possibilities for the Deaf?—Same panel members as on Tuesday and Wednesday.

HOME ECONOMICS GROUP MEETING

Leader: Catherine E. Brown, Louisiana School; secretary, Doris Norman, Oklahoma School.

Round-table discussion: A Need of Reorganizing the Home Economics Course As Traditionally Taught, and the Introduction of an Active Junior Homemakers' Club as an Extra-Curricular Activity.

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Leader: George W. Harlow, Pennsylvania School.

Paper: The Need for Greater Emphasis on Intramural Sports, W. Burton Moore, Missouri School.

SOCIAL AND CHARACTER TRAINING

Leader: Rae Martino, Waterbury, Conn.; chairman, Mrs. H. T. Poore, superintendent, Tennessee School.

Paper: Important Tools in a Religious Training Program, Rev. Robert C. Fletcher, Birmingham, Ala.

Paper: Boys and Girls Week—A Citizenship Project—As Carried Out at the Arizona School for the Deaf and the Blind, Elizabeth Woodburn, Arizona School.

ART

Chairman: Lois T. Kelly, Missouri School.

Paper: Posters, Geneva B. Llewellyn, Wisconsin School.

Paper: Toy Making, Catherine Torgeson, Kansas School.

SECTION FOR DEAF TEACHERS

Leader: G. C. Farquhar, Missouri School.

Paper: Socialized Mathematics for the Ninth Grade, David Mudgett, Illinois School.

Paper: The Teaching of Mathematics, Byron B. Burnes, California School.

GENERAL BUSINESS SESSION, THURSDAY MORNING, 11 A. M.

Chairman: Dr. Ignatius Bjorlee, superintendent, Maryland School.

GENERAL SESSION, THURSDAY AFTERNOON, 2 P. M.

Presiding: Irving S. Fufeld, dean, Gallaudet College.

Paper: Improving our Educational Opportunities Through Curriculum Development, Dr. Christine P. Ingram, assistant director, special education, Rochester, N. Y., and Elizabeth Dunlap, Rochester Day School, Rochester, N. Y.

Paper: A National School of Trades, Agriculture and Technical Training for the Deaf, Harvey B. Barnes, supervisor, vocational department, Illinois School.

Address: Health and Physical Education, George W. Harlow, Pennsylvania School.

Address: The Role of Religion in an Education for Character Development, Dr. Franc Lewis McCluer, president, Westminster College, Fulton, Mo.

OUTDOOR MEETING, THURSDAY EVENING, 6 P. M.

Old-fashioned Calloway County barbecue and variety entertainment, Missouri School for the Deaf, Athletic Field.

SUPERVISION

Leader: Sarah E. Lewis, Beverly School; chairman, Harry L. Welty, Nebraska School.

Paper: Problems of Selection and Interpretation of Intelligence Tests, Richard G. Brill, principal, Virginia School; discussion, Mrs. Wilbur Bennett, Nebraska School.

PROBLEMS OF SELECTION AND INTERPRETATION OF INTELLIGENCE TESTS FOR THE DEAF

(RICHARD G. BRILL, principal, Virginia School)

When a subject for a paper is selected in November and the paper itself is written the following June, it is readily understandable why there may be a slight divergence between text and title. While this is the situation present in this paper, we hope not to digress too far from the subject, but we are taking the liberty of reversing the title and discussing the matter of interpretation before the matter of selection. On the face of it, this may seem to be putting the cart before the horse, but we hope that it will eventually be evident that this is not so.

Like the Apostle Paul who was all things to all men, the term "intelligence" is something different to nearly every individual who uses the word. General intelligence has been variously defined as capacity for meeting new situations, common sense, ability to organize past experience, ability to generalize, readiness of insight into problems, and capacity to learn. For teachers in general the ideas of capacity to learn and to generalize are the most important things to keep in mind in connection with the idea of intelligence. (4) Because this capacity to learn and to generalize, which we call innate ability or intelligence, is very difficult for anybody to discern accurately merely by observation and contact, special means for investigating the problem are necessary. These special means are the so-called intelligence tests.

Intelligence is commonly divided into three kinds: Abstract, concrete, and social. Most of the results of testing the deaf are based on tests which must be classed as concrete rather than abstract intelligence. This is, of course, due to the fact that performance scales and other nonlanguage paper and pencil tests are forced to deal with concrete material. So far, all tests of abstract intelligence have been based upon language and are, therefore, inadequate with the deaf. (3) Is it possible to generalize without language as a tool? This has not been definitely proven as yet, but most psychologists think not.

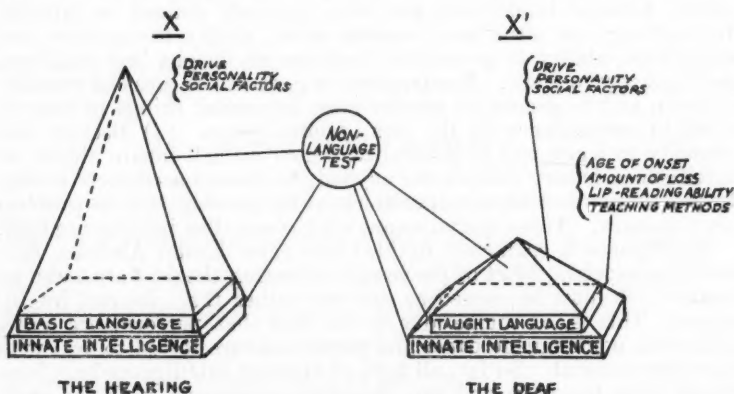
Teachers in general are not faced with the same problem as teachers of the deaf. As all teachers in schools for the deaf know, the handicap of deafness is the handicap of lack of language. While teachers in general are dealing with the problem of the learning of pupils who have a natural foundation of normal language, teachers of the deaf are dealing with the actual learning of the language itself. The two problems of learning are very different uses of the brain.

For this reason we cannot expect any correlation, or at least any significant correlation, between nonlanguage tests and a deaf child's prospect of academic progress.

We submit as proof of this statement observation of any school for the feeble-minded. In schools for the feeble-minded by far the major-

ity, if not considerably more than 75 percent, have an IQ much lower than our poorest deaf children. All but those in the very lowest classes, such as idiots, learn to talk, to understand, and to express themselves. On the level of their experiences they can carry on an extensive conversation; yet their academic progress will be limited. In other words, it takes very little or no general intelligence to learn basic language, but if we want to build on top of this basic language more academic achievements, it requires definite intelligence.

Now, it may be possible that there is a correlation between the intelligence shown in performance tests and the extra intelligence needed for academic achievements beyond basic language. When we use performance tests for a measuring stick for a deaf child's prospects in academic achievement, we must realize that it seems to take a tremendous amount of specialized intelligence to learn this basic language which any hearing child, no matter what his intelligence, learns without an effort. In testing a deaf child we are trying to correlate intelligence shown in a performance test with the intelligence needed to learn basic language, whereas in the case of a hearing child, we are trying to correlate intelligence shown in a performance test with the intelligence needed for further academic progress above the level of basic language. These two relationships are not the same.



The accompanying chart is an attempt to put this idea into concrete form by representing the fundamental mental processes of two individuals. The bottom blocks marked innate intelligence are identical in size in these two hypothetical people. A nonlanguage intelligence test is administered to each and both should attain exactly the same score because their innate intelligence is the same. The lines A and A' indicate this score. The hearing person, however, has the block of basic language, naturally acquired, superimposed upon his innate intelligence. These two blocks together, acting as bases, determine the size of a pyramid which represents the potential academic achievement of the hearing individual. Admittedly the size of this pyramid will also be affected by other factors marked X on the chart such as drive, personality, and social factors. After administering the nonlanguage test to a hearing person, we try to determine the size

of the pyramid (his potential achievement), and this interpretation is shown on the chart by line B. The deaf person, however, has a very small block representing the amount of language he has been taught superimposed upon his innate intelligence. Then we try to use the score on his nonlanguage test to do either one of two things. As shown by line C on the chart, sometimes we try to determine how much language he will be capable of learning, and sometimes as shown by line D, we try to predict his future academic achievement as we do with hearing people. (Parenthetically I would like to say that it is not done very successfully with nonlanguage tests with the hearing.) But the case of the feeble-minded children shows that this large block of innate intelligence is not necessarily the key factor in the learning of language. It is more likely a specialized factor, perhaps one of Spearman's *s* factors in his "two factor" theory of intelligence. And as our diagram clearly shows, the pyramid of potential academic achievement is much smaller for the deaf person than for the hearing, due to the small size of the second or language block.

This seems to us to be the reason why we cannot expect any significant correlation between nonlanguage tests and a deaf child's prospect of academic progress.

Should we then stop trying to use or to experiment with nonlanguage intelligence tests with the deaf? If teachers or administrators expect to use the results of these tests to better understand their deaf children in the classroom immediately, we would say it was better not to use them. These tests should be used for experimentation by people who both understand the deaf and have training and skill in testing and interpretation of test results. If the purpose of these testers is ultimately to find something that will predict the specialized ability of a deaf child to learn language, it may be valuable in the long run.

Any nonlanguage test that purports to test the intelligence of the deaf should be thoroughly studied by actual experimentation to determine just how valuable it is in helping us to understand the deaf child better. The Chicago nonverbal examination by Arthur W. Brown is a nonlanguage test which can be administered by pantomime. It has norms for both pantomime directions and for verbal directions, but the children who took it by means of pantomime directions in the process of standardization were hearing children, not deaf. The norms would probably have been different if deaf children had been used in the standardization. In the California school a study of this test has been undertaken, and the aim of the study is to determine the reliability and the validity of the examination. Because we do not have a good measuring stick available, since no intelligence test which involves language is valid for the deaf, the determination of the real validity of the Chicago test will take some time. It necessitates the following through of many cases over a period of several years.

In form the Chicago nonverbal examination is somewhat similar to the Pintner nonlanguage mental test, but the Chicago examination is more extensive in scope, being composed of a battery of 10 tests.

The test was reviewed by three people in the 1940 Mental Measurement Yearbook. Dr. Robert G. Bernreuter, of Pennsylvania State College, made the point that the norms must be treated as tentative

until a larger number of scores are accumulated. This is probably true for hearing children, and a whole new set of scores should be accumulated for deaf children. Dr. Myrtle Pignatelli, clinical psychologist, Bellevue Psychiatric Hospital, stated that the Chicago test compared favorably with the Pintner nonlanguage mental test and the revised beta examination as an instrument for the measurement of general intelligence, although it covers a wider range of mental functions. She used the test in clinical work with children of foreign backgrounds. Dr. Pignatelli stated that of the 10 tests, only 4 are completely free of verbal concepts in some form. S. D. Porteus, of the University of Hawaii, also reviewed the test, and his criticisms were entirely negative. Much of his adverse criticism dealt with the printed picture forms in the test, but the subjects used in the California school did not seem to encounter difficulty in recognizing pictures in the test. His other major criticism, which sounded more valid, was that it was unwise to weight a test battery by having 2 tests of symbol substitution as this one does.

When this experiment was begun in the California school 100 cases were carefully selected and classified on the basis of the judgment of the supervising teacher and the classroom teacher. Every one of these subjects was congenitally deaf or became deaf before acquiring any language. Eight children were classified as superior in intelligence and placed in group A, 16 children were classified as above average and placed in group B, 51 children were selected as average and placed in group C, 16 children were classified as below average and placed in group D, and 9 children were chosen as borderline cases and placed in group E. The accompanying table shows the age spread of these children. None were more than 16 years old.

Ages	A	B	C	D	E	Total
7-8-9	2	3	11	4	3	23
10-11	2	4	14	1	1	22
12-13	0	5	12	3	1	21
14-16	4	4	14	8	4	34
Total	8	16	51	16	9	100

This entire group was tested in three different sections in October 1940. The results of this test, when classified in the following table, immediately showed some interesting results.

Group	Number	Mean	Sigma
Hearing group on which the test was standardized; pantomime instruction.	3,182	100.00	15.00
Total deaf group	100	93.11	18.10
Ages 14-16	34	100.35	16.50
Ages 12-13	21	99.38	17.40
Ages 10-11	22	91.10	15.50
Ages 7-8-9	23	77.77	13.50

These figures tend to indicate agreement between the testing of deaf children and the testing of hearing children with this test. For ages 12, and above, the central tendency and the dispersion of the groups agree as high as can reasonably be expected. As the groups get younger it is obvious that the deaf children did not do so well.

This was not necessarily the fault of the test. The older children were accustomed to taking standardized tests while the younger children were not at all familiar with test technique. In the second place, the groups in which the children were tested were too large. Both of these factors handicapped the younger children. The smaller mean and larger sigma of the deaf group as a whole were, of course, influenced by the scores of the younger children.

Before retesting the group in January it was decided to train the younger children with specially prepared material. The younger children, taken in groups of eight, were taught how to begin work when a signal was given, to stop at a given signal, and to keep working on their own papers without comparing their work with that of their classmates. Such things do not seem normally to come up in the school life of deaf children while they are in a primary department.

When the subjects were retested it was done in much smaller groups than the first time, and the groups were better classified as to homogeneity of ability. It was felt that a much better testing situation prevailed during the retesting than at the time of the first administration of the test. However, this improved situation plus the training period of the younger children cannot account for the amount of improvement in scores all through the test.

	October			January		
	Mean	Sigma	Number	Mean	Sigma	Number
Total group.....	93.11	18.10	100	104.93	17.36	98
14 to 16.....	100.35	16.50	34	110.53	17.61	34
12 and 13.....	99.38	17.40	21	107.50	20.35	20
10 and 11.....	91.10	15.60	22	104.75	13.37	21
7, 8, and 9.....	77.77	13.50	23	94.70	14.55	23

The improvement in scores must partially be attributed to learning during the original testing, in spite of the 3-months' interval between tests. When some of the subjects were questioned about the tests later on, they all said that they felt they did better the second time. They could remember the easy answers from the first time, and this gave them more time to work on the harder problems. If most of the gain was due to learning, it would be logical that the more intelligent would gain more than the less intelligent. But it did not work out that way. The amount of change in the top 25 and in the bottom 25 scores was analyzed. Of the 25 subjects who had the highest scores in October, 4 had lower scores in January while the other 21 all increased. The average amount of increase was 8.4 points per subject. Every one of the 25 subjects having the lowest scores in October improved, and the average amount of gain was 15.6 points per person. Because the poorer subjects gained more than the better subjects, it seems reasonable that the factor of regression also played a large part in these scores.

The scores of the 98 subjects who were retested in January were correlated with their October scores. While there was a gain in means from 93 in October to 105 in January, the coefficient of correlation was 0.91 ± 0.01 . This is as good a reliability as the author of the test himself found. His retest reliability on 74 cases was 0.80. The reliability

the author found by the split-half method was 0.91 after correction by the Spearman-Brown formula.

According to most psychological literature, teacher judgment of a pupil's intelligence is notoriously poor. This is due to the fact that teachers tend to judge achievement rather than innate intelligence, and that they also tend to disregard the chronological age of their children in proportion to their mental age. The coefficient of correlation between the teachers' estimate and the October scores was 0.51 ± 0.05 . More important than this correlation, however, were the charts prepared to show the placement of each subject. Each square represented one subject. A square that was colored red was a subject judged to be superior, blue was judged to be above average, white was average, red-striped below average, and blue-striped a border-line case. The charts, or histograms, for the total groups, showed that the cases fell into a fairly normal distribution. About the only generalization that could be made on an analysis of the histograms by age groups is that the tests and the teachers' judgment agreed pretty well as to who the slower pupils were. But these histograms were also useful in analysis of individual cases by people who knew the children well.

Forty-four of the subjects had been tested on the Stanford Achievement Tests in May 1940. Their scores from this test were converted into educational quotients and correlated with the average of their October and January Chicago nonverbal scores. The correlation between the scores was 0.63 ± 0.06 , but more interesting than this was the fact that every subject who was above the mean in nonverbal I. Q. was also above the mean in educational quotient.

Scores are always a relative matter. If in the future the younger children continue to get lower mean scores than the older children, as they did in both October and January of this year, we will know that the scoring scale in the manual is not valid for deaf children. But by administering this test to more deaf children each year for the next few years a new table of norms would be built up which would be valid. Also, when we retest some of our present subjects after an interval of several years we will find out how the reliability stands up over a longer period of time. By matching the progress of these children with their relative standing on the Chicago nonverbal examination, we will find to what extent this test is useful for individual diagnosis with deaf children.

Admittedly this paper is paradoxical. In the first part of the paper we have tried to prove why we cannot expect any correlation between nonlanguage tests and a deaf child's prospect of academic progress. In the second part of the paper we have shown what steps we are going through to determine whether in one particular non-language test there may be any diagnostic value in determining a deaf child's prospect of academic achievement.

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PRESCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN

Leader: Virginia Rosser, Gough School, San Francisco, Calif.; chairman, Mary French Pearce, Missouri School.

Paper: The Nursery School—the Period of Learning Readiness; Mary C. New, Lexington School, New York City.

Paper: An Experiment on the Play of Nursery School Deaf and Hearing Children; Carmen Klorer, Central Institute.

THE NURSERY SCHOOL—THE PERIOD OF LEARNING READINESS

(MARY C. NEW, Lexington School, New York City)

The nursery school is fast becoming an integral part of the program of schools for the deaf. More and more schools are to be found all over the country where parents may enter their acoustically handicapped children as early as the age of 2½ years for preschool training. Since for the majority of our schools this phase of work is still in the stage of experimentation, it might be well for us to ask ourselves, "Just what do we expect from the nursery school for little deaf children?" "What do we believe to be of value in this early training?"

In the Lexington School we have had a nursery school for 3 years. Our children enter at about the age of 2 years 6 months; some have been younger, the majority older, but we consider all children under 5 years of age candidates for the nursery groups. From the experiences we have had with these children a philosophy is emerging which each year strengthens; that is, that this period of school life is a period of learning readiness. It was our chief aim from the beginning to build up a nursery school, following as closely as possible the pattern set by one of the outstanding nursery centers of the country, where activities are planned for the development of the child as a whole. This meant, of course, the fostering of good physical habits that have to do with eating, playing, exercise, cleanliness, and relaxation. It meant the furthering of good social habits that have to do with adjustment and self-control, and the ability to get along with one's self, one's contemporaries, and one's chronological superiors. It meant the fulfillment of each child's personality needs so that the child might acquire a feeling of success in his own work, and in his contact with others. Our second aim was to offer compensatory activities necessary for the development of the deaf child. This meant establishing correct attitudes toward speech and speech reading. It meant the preservation of whatever hearing was present, and the further development of residual hearing. It meant the preservation of the child's natural voice quality, and the use of that voice in the acquisition of a meaningful speech. Our primary and secondary aims meant, in brief, the guidance of the child into those patterns of behavior that would render the whole child ready to adjust himself happily to whatever group he found himself in, and ready to learn those skills upon which the education of a deaf child depends. The time for the presentation of this paper is limited, therefore it will be necessary to curtail the description of our work to one side of our program. Since we are all teachers of the deaf at this meeting, it may prove more interesting to stress that part of the work in this paper, that is, those activities dealing with the development of the acoustically handicapped child.

It was impossible to take a program for an average 5- or 6-year-old group and present it under a similar teaching set-up even in a reduced form, for experience has shown that chronological maturity is a major factor in the teaching of young children. Being persuaded of this truth, we were not so much concerned with how many words we taught in speech reading as we were with establishing the correct attitude toward this skill; we were not so much concerned with how many words we taught the child to speak as we were with establishing the idea of the usefulness and meaningfulness of speech; with the preservation and further development of normal voice quality; and, with the preservation and development of any usable hearing. How then did we go about setting up a program that would meet the requirements of developing, first, the whole child, and, secondly, the child who was severely handicapped by deafness?

To begin with, we divided the children into two groups according to age, so that each group would be similar as far as chronological maturation was concerned. Each group was in charge of a trained nursery teacher of hearing children. The children below the age of four were placed in nursery I, those past 4 years of age in nursery II. The children in nursery I are all day pupils, being brought to school by their parents each morning at 9 o'clock, and called for at 3 o'clock in the afternoon. Their day is spent exactly as any day would be in a hearing nursery group, except for 30 minutes a day of compensatory activities. Nursery I outside yard is equipped with slide, seesaws, sand pile, swings, large hollow building blocks, barrels and planks, tricycles, wagons, big colored balls, etc. The nursery I indoor room is equipped with easels and paints, clay, Montessori materials of various sorts, dolls, doll carriages, and beds, toy furniture, large attractively colored blocks, pictures for matching, cut-out puzzles, picture books, etc. Except for the 30 minutes previously mentioned, the children are busy all day performing tasks which are just as important to them as our jobs are to us, and getting from those exercises physical and mental training that go to build habits of cooperation, attention, concentration, and observation necessary for learning. The 30 minutes devoted to specialized work for deaf children is divided into two periods. The first 15 minutes of this time is given to individual speech reading and speech preparation using the tactile, visual, auditory, complete word-with-meaning approach, and the second 15 minutes to acoustic stimulation over an electrical group-hearing aid. Each child is taken individually for speech reading and we are able to do this in one 15-minute period at the Lexington School by using the teachers in training who teach daily under supervision. This so-called "specific" speech-reading period proceeds under a very definite scheme. The teacher seats herself on a level with the child.

She first puts earphones on the baby, and then places the child's hands on her face. In this way, the child's senses of hearing, touch, and sight are used simultaneously, and the child from the first is aware of the fact that speech has sound, which he hears; has vibration in, and movement of, the face, which he feels; and movement of the lips, which he sees. These sensations, he discovers, are always associated with meaning, for it does not take a little child long to get the idea that when the teacher says something, some object on a nearby table is to be picked out. From the very first, we use whole sentences

in speech-reading, and whole words in speech. Instead of saying, "a ball," "a top," "an airplane," etc., we use a complete sentence form and vary that form often. We say, "Shirley, can you find the boat?", "Where is the ball, Ruth?", "Give me the toy airplane", "Show me the red top." As soon as the child has the idea of picking out the key word in a sentence, we start using adjectives of size, color, and number along with familiar nouns, and we find that the 4-year-olds respond just as well to "Can you find a small red ball?", or, "Who has a pretty blue bow on her hair today?", "Where is a large chair?" In fact, the ease with which many of our babies understand a variety of general connected language has caused us to wonder whether or not one of the reasons for limited speech-reading ability on the part of the child has not sometimes been due to the limited viewpoint of the teacher rather than to a lack of ability on the part of the child. Is it not possible that we have restrained the child's progress by the paucity of the language we used? What opportunity do we give a little child to enlarge his speech-reading skill when we are careful always to use words we know the child knows, and to use these words in a form we know the child knows?

In order to give the children an opportunity to see, and if possible hear, all sorts of normal language, a very determined effort is carried on by the nursery-school teachers and all persons who come in contact with the babies to talk naturally whenever a child approaches them. This is what we call "casual" speech reading, as opposed to the "specific" speech reading already described. The casual approach goes on all day long. It would be impossible to name in any detail what is said during the day, for we talk to the child as though he could hear. We ourselves are more and more amazed at what these little children are able to understand, provided they are given the chance to see natural language. After all, it's just as easy to say, "How would you like to go play in the yard now?" "Go get your hat and coat because you mother's coming in a little while," or, "Wash your hands right away. It's time for lunch," as it is to say just one or two words from such sentences. And the children do understand.

Acoustic training takes two forms. First, the child hears meaningful words over and over during the speech-reading period. While hearing the word, the baby also feels it in the teacher's face and sees it on her lips. If there is usable hearing present, it is not long before the child begins to try to imitate the word in much the same way that the hearing baby does. Even when the hearing loss is very severe, we find that under this triple approach all children will attempt some oral response to this type of teaching situation. Where the hearing loss falls between the 50-70 decibel range, it is possible to teach from 50 to 100 to 150 words in speech during the first year in school. This statement assumes, of course, that the child has an average or better than average intelligence quotient. Where the hearing loss falls below the 70-decibel line, no such rapid progress is made, but even here the child will respond to this multiple approach and will imitate words which have become very familiar. The second acoustic period is devoted to listening to music over one of the electrical group hearing aids. At first, nothing more is expected than the recognition of the fact that the music is on or off. This the child signifies by raising his finger when the music is heard, dropping it when the music

stops. This is a very valuable exercise because it makes the child ready for the audiometer test. The next step is to distinguish between different tempos of music. Records that are very definite as to time are introduced. First, two of contrasting rhythms are played, then three, then four. The child responds either by a physical demonstration such as marching, rocking a doll to sleep, blowing a horn, and so on, or by pointing to a picture illustrating the type of music heard.

Speech work—or as we prefer to call it, speech preparation, in the nursery school—consists to a great extent in encouraging the child to give back in speech whole words which have become familiar to him through hearing, touch, and sight. The fact that the young child likes to imitate and imitates easily, is of tremendous importance at this stage of the game. Besides the repetition of easy, meaningful words, speech exercises comprise babbling for flexibility of the lips and the tongue; imitation of vowels for flexibility of the voice; and repetition of easy syllables in different rhythmic patterns for changes in timing and duration.

The work in nursery II is very similar to that of nursery I. Here, again, the group as a whole is in charge of a trained teacher of hearing children. This second group, however, is divided in halves. Each half of this group consists of four children. They go into a classroom for an hour and a half each day, where they are taught by trained teachers of the deaf, following the same type of work described for nursery I. The classroom work, or compensatory work, is devoted to the development of speech, speech-reading, and acoustics under the triple complete-word-with-meaning approach. In addition to this, silent reading is introduced as an added support to the acquisition of speech and language. In nursery II the speech books and charts are started, a description of which appeared in the October 1940 Volta Review, under the title "Speech for the Young Deaf Child."

What has our 3 years' experience with deaf babies taught us? It has shown us what we can expect, and also what we cannot expect, in the way of results. We have discovered five definite points from our work. First of all, we have discovered that many of the results of this work are intangible and immeasurable. You cannot measure the effects of an educational program that has transformed a nervous, unhappy child into a well-adjusted, happy one. You cannot measure the metamorphosis that changed an emotionally upset mother, afraid to face the burden of a handicapped child, into a parent, happy and proud of the progress of this same child; with confidence in the present and faith in the future because her burden is understood and shared. The effect of adjusted parents on the welfare of the child is of such vital importance that the statement needs no expansion.

Second, we have learned that the nursery school work is not so much to be measured in terms of how many words in speech reading and how much speech, as it is in the larger terms of attitudes.

Third, our program in the Lexington School has shown us that the 3- and 4-year-old babies reach the end of their nursery era happy, well adjusted, eager, keenly alive, cooperative little persons. This fulfills the primary aim of our program, viz, development of the whole child.

Fourth, the children also reach the end of the nursery era with psychologically sound attitudes toward speech and speech reading,

because these skills have come to have meaning and usefulness to them. This fulfills the secondary aim of the program: development of the deaf child.

Fifth, the fulfillment of these two aims gives us children measurably and immeasurably superior to an entering class which has not had nursery-school experience, for the nursery babies have reached a point of maturation where they are ready; ready to cooperate as individuals or as a group; ready to learn more speech reading which has become a natural habit; ready to learn more speech which has become meaningful and useful—in brief, the nursery school passes on a child who is "ready to learn."

AN EXPERIMENT ON THE PLAY OF NURSERY SCHOOL DEAF AND HEARING CHILDREN

(CARMEN KLOBER, Central Institute)

An interest in the play of children and adults has been noted in philosophical and psychological literature from the time of the early Greek philosophers to the present date. Early writings are concerned with definitions of play and theoretical discussions of its values. Experimental studies on the play of children are relatively recent.

A survey of the literature on play indicates many divergent viewpoints on criteria of play, theories of play, and values of play. According to the various authors, play has been considered as activity purposefully selected, the work of childhood, natural activity because of life itself, voluntary self-sufficient activity, adaptation to environment, development of the individual, and a preparation for the future.

While it is true that the child adapts to his environment in play, develops by means of it, and also prepares for the future, these things do not furnish the drive behind his play activities. When playing he is not purposefully fitting himself for the future. Play as observed and recorded in this study may be considered as an activity important for development and a preparation for the future from an adult viewpoint, but from the child's viewpoint it is merely pleasurable, voluntary activity.

This study was undertaken to determine: (1) Whether there are any differences in the preference of play materials of deaf and hearing children; (2) whether there is more social interaction when the deaf children play with hearing children than when they play with other deaf children; (3) whether certain play materials provided tend to give more social interaction; (4) whether there are any sex differences in the use of the materials; and (5) whether there are any differences according to chronological age.

The study was made possible through the maintenance of a nursery school for hearing children in addition to the nursery school for the deaf at Central Institute for the Deaf in St. Louis, Mo. The children became well acquainted with the observer before the experiment began. They were accustomed to her presence and thus it did not interfere with their play activities.

Seven deaf children, three boys and four girls, and nine hearing children, one boy and eight girls, were subjects. The deaf group

ranged in age from 3 years 2 months to 5 years 5 months. The hearing group ranged from 2 years 3 months to 5 years 2 months. There was a difference of 1 year in the mean age of the two groups.

All of the children showed normal or superior intelligence as tested by the school psychologist. The hearing group had an average intelligence 1.1 points higher than the deaf group.

The children were taken to a small room containing a small pink table and two small pink chairs and the play material to be used for the observation. The children played for 5 minutes and the observer sat outside and recorded their actions.

Each deaf child and each hearing child was observed alone and each deaf child with each other deaf child and with each of 2 hearing children. All of these children or couples were observed in 6 play situations. The 7 deaf children were observed alone, the 9 hearing children were observed alone, the 14 combinations of a deaf and a hearing child, and the 21 combinations of 2 deaf children were observed in each of the 6 play situations. There was a total of 306 five-minute periods. The 6 play situations presented: (1) Clay, (2) books, (3) dolls, (4) blocks, (5) a combination of all 4, and (6) no material.

The children were taken to the room and allowed to play for the allotted time. If there were two children, two sets of material were used.

If a child came out early, he was allowed to stay out. His companion could come out or continue to play as he chose. The children's play was undirected and uninterrupted except in one observation when two of the children threw blocks and began hitting one another.

Play behavior was recorded for each half-minute period on record sheets prepared in advance. Behavior was noted by checks in the proper column according to the half minute in which it was observed. Record sheets varied according to materials used and possibilities of uses of materials and behavior included on each.

Some interpretation of responses had to be made. Singing, laughing, and crying were easily recognized but with young deaf children talking had some modifications. Included as talking were the speech attempts of the deaf child, intelligible or not, as well as speech without voice which clearly conveyed some meaning. The same criteria were used for hearing children but unintelligible speech and nonvocal speech did not occur often.

Gestures were used frequently by the deaf to attract the attention of the companion, show something or put over some idea. Gestures were used by the hearing children to refer to the materials at hand. These responses were recorded. Other responses included: Showing something, looking around, independent play, interference, singing, an attempt to take the others' material successfully or unsuccessfully, and fighting.

When all of the materials were presented merely the choice of material was indicated, not the activity with the material.

Remarks about unusual behavior were written at the bottom of the sheets. There was also space to write in any action not provided for on the record sheet.

In a computation of the results tables were made of the average number of the various responses per play situation for blocks, clay, books, dolls, combined material, and no material. Averages were

computed according to the number of times each group was seen in each play situation. Separate tables of the average number of talking, laughing, crying, singing, and gesturing responses per play situation were made to compare the amounts of responses requiring vocalization or some form of communication of ideas for each group.

A tabulation of the frequency of selection and the corresponding percentages of choices of the various materials in the combined material situation was made.

To determine what percent of the time was spent on the companion and what percent was spent on self-play the action with recorded in terms of minutes and percentage computed on a basis of 255 minutes, the total length of time each situation was observed.

Companion play was of two types, cooperative and antisocial. In cooperative play the following items were included: (1) Constructive play with the companion, (2) imitation of the companion, (3) watching the companion's play, (4) assisting the companion in play, and (5) showing something to the companion. Antisocial play included these items: (1) Interference with the companion's play, (2) successful and unsuccessful attempts to take the companion's material, and (3) roughhouse and fighting.

In self-play were included those responses in which the child paid no attention to either the companion or the material. Independent play and looking around were the items considered as self-play.

Talking, laughing, gestures, singing, and crying were excluded because it was impossible to determine whether the companion always participated in these activities.

Results of this type of experiment do not lend themselves to statistical procedures and only behavior trends based on the judgments of the observer can be reported. Frequency of occurrence of responses of different types can therefore be the only basis of discussing results.

The results of these observations indicated that individual differences influence type of response more than auditory impairment. For example, one deaf child cried whenever she was required to play alone; one hearing child sang on many occasions; one deaf child showed more antisocial play and frequently did not remain for the entire play period.

One outstanding observation was the amount of talking used by the deaf children. As measured in this study, it was equivalent to or exceeded that of the hearing in almost every situation. When the size of the vocabulary of the deaf child is considered, as compared with that of the hearing child, it would seem that educators of the deaf and parents of the deaf child should be alert to the use of speech at preschool age and continue to stimulate the deaf child to use his speech.

There was more talking when the deaf played with hearing companions than when they played with deaf companions in blocks, books, and clay situations. The reverse was true for dolls, no material and all materials. Combining all groups, books and dolls provoked the most talking.

The hearing children and one deaf child were responsible for the singing which occurred. Blocks provoked the most singing.

In the play of the deaf with the deaf, the laughter responses were greatest. The situation in which no material was presented provoked the largest number of laughter responses for all of the children.

The number of crying responses was very small and most of them could be traced to the youngest deaf child. The situation in which all materials were presented provoked the greatest number of crying responses.

When the total responses are considered, the deaf playing alone responded most frequently to blocks; the hearing alone to dolls and blocks with equal frequency; the deaf with deaf to dolls and the deaf with hearing to books. Most responses were recorded for all groups with no material present. The total number of responses per situation indicate more overt responses for the deaf than for the hearing.

The gestures of the deaf occur when playing alone and with others. The incidence when playing with another deaf child is much greater than when playing with a hearing child. This is perhaps the best argument favoring the combined nursery school as the deaf realize that gestures are not always the best means of social intercourse. Keeping the deaf child in a speech atmosphere will reduce communication by gestures.

Clay was unquestionably the favorite material for the deaf, with blocks a second choice. The hearing child selected blocks and books with equal frequency and clay almost as often. The deaf clearly showed greater preference and greater skill in handling constructive materials. The deaf in selecting materials influenced the selection of the deaf companion more than that of the hearing companion.

Certain materials also provoked more companion play—most responses to the companion were naturally made when no material was available. The ranking of the materials according to the amount of social interaction which they provoked are clay, books, dolls, no material, blocks, and all material together.

Antisocial play was infrequent, occurring most often with blocks. Self-play, which consisted of independent play and looking around, was observed most frequently in play with no materials, blocks, and combined materials.

No sex differences or differences due to chronological age were noted in this experiment.

In play situations of deaf with hearing children the deaf took the initiative and attempted to draw the hearing children into their play activities. The hearing either conformed to the standards set by the deaf children and played with them or sat and watched them play, imitating what they saw. How much of this was due to previous experience with the materials and how much to the individual differences of the children could not be determined.

In view of the results and observations of this experiment it can be said that, properly conducted, a combined nursery school has value for both the hearing and the deaf groups. Both need emotional development and stability, instruction in cooperative play, and opportunities for social contacts with children of their own ages. For the deaf children additional values are contacts which stimulate speech and discourage communication by gestures and provide opportunities for a normal play environment.

SPEECH DEVELOPMENT

Leader: Jennie M. Henderson, principal, Horace Mann School, Roxbury, Mass.; presiding, Amelia DeMotte, Illinois School.

Paper: Development of Speech by the Tadoma Method, Sophia K. Alcorn, assistant principal, Detroit Day School.

Paper: Exposition and Plans for Definite Work in Intermediate and Advanced Grades in Speech, Enfield Joiner, St. Mary's School, Buffalo, N. Y.

Colored film, and paper: Activities in Speech Correction Classes in Detroit Public Schools, Hildred Gross, Detroit, Mich.

DEVELOPMENT OF SPEECH BY THE TADOMA METHOD

(SOPHIA K. ALCORN, assistant principal, Detroit Day School)

After years of teaching the deaf-blind, and seeing what the tactile method did for them—both in speech and language—I determined to try it with deaf children.

Authorities tell us that each particular sound has its own particular pathway, and before a brain connection is definitely formed the sound has to be repeated many, many times. "Constant repetition of the same stimulus with the same corresponding result forms a habit. Speech is a habit formed chiefly through our auditory impressions." The hearing child thus by a continuous process of listening and comparing his own sound results with the sounds of others gradually approaches nearer to correctness.

So we endeavor through the development of the tactile sense to give the deaf child a speech pattern of the desired sound, a realization of the muscular effort required to produce the sound and thus bring to his mind a substitute for the hearing of words. We see the degree of his success from day to day as his efforts continue.

Vibration is the basis of our speech work in the Detroit Day School for the Deaf. And along with the vibration we want to establish the muscular patterns for speech. There is only one way for the child to get both vibration and the muscular patterns and that is by putting his hand on the face of the speaker. Merely putting his hand on the face of the speaker without concentrating on what is being spoken will never bring results. That is very much like turning on the radio and then sitting down to read a book.

In order to be sure that the child is concentrating, we have him shut his eyes when he places his hand on the teacher's face. In this way he cuts off all outside interference. I have heard some teachers of the deaf object to the shutting of the eyes, saying it is not the natural way for a child to learn. Neither is lip reading the natural way for a child to learn to understand language, nor is the reading of Braille the natural way for a child to learn to read.

When our preschool children enter school, they have seven or eight vibration periods per day. It is our endeavor to saturate them with vibration before they begin to talk. These children have sense training work, speech reading, and vibration. Some of them have vibration for more than a year before any speech work is begun. They have vibration of nouns, commands, and vowels. We start vowel work with "oo" and "ar." As soon as the child recognizes the difference between the two vowels, the third vowel "ou" is added. Gradually all the vowels are added. The breath consonants are started

rather early in the year, but the voice consonants are not given until the child begins his voice work.

Each child is given tongue and lip gymnastics and also exercise for free movement of the jaw. We want the child to get sound sequence as well as individual sounds, so we give nouns and commands in vibration.

Until a year or so ago, it was taken for granted that the fingertips were the most sensitive part of the hand. However, 2 years ago I made a survey in our school and without exception all the children tested agreed that the most sensitive portion of the hand for understanding speech was that part just below the thumb. One little boy explained by saying, "We can get sound with the finger tips, but words with the lower part of the hand." Now we use the lower part of the hand for contact with the face.

When a child enters school and begins speech reading, we have him watch the face of the speaker, at the same time holding his hand on her face. After he knows several words by feeling and seeing, we begin having him shut his eyes, and by feeling alone he can tell the difference between two words. From this time on, speech reading and vibration are separated. Words are added much more rapidly in speech reading than in vibration. We develop commands in the same way.

After the child is thoroughly familiar with the tactile and muscular feeling of the teacher's face for a number of words, we ask him to begin saying one of the words that he has been feeling in vibration over a period of months.

We prefer starting voice with "oo," but after a trial if a child has a more pleasing "ar" we use that and give him "a top" as his first word. If we use "oo," "a tooth" is the first word given.

If the voice, on the first trial, is not satisfactory he is not allowed to use it until he has had more practice in "listening" with his hand. On the other hand, if the voice is pleasant, we accept it and speech work begins in earnest.

The child first gives the words in imitation of the teacher, associating the spoken word with the object. The next step is to write the word in script and also in symbols and associate it with the object.

We do not give combinations. Every combination the child sees either on the lips of the teacher or on the blackboard must mean something to him. In speech reading we give the names of objects, colors, numbers, and commands.

In speech we hold to the same procedure; the only combinations he speaks are those that he can associate with an object that he knows.

After the child starts his speech work, new words are quite easy for him. We continue to keep the vibration ahead of the speech work. New words are often given in vibration first and the child is asked to say them.

This year we have a group of children leaving the kindergarten 4 and 5 years of age. They can speak 10 words and recognize them in script and symbols. We always have our children write the words in symbols for it helps them to remember how to pronounce them.

At the end of the first year out of the kindergarten, our children take two sentences in speech reading, and for original language work they tell about things that happen at home.

The development of the kinesthetic sense is not only an aid to speech, but it also leads to better speech reading and seems to give the child a general mental stimulus. Given under the direction of a trained teacher who is willing to spend time and effort in the cause, it may be used profitably through all the grades. Thus used it should result in more intelligible speech, more fluency, better inflection, and more voluntary language.

Speech is the birthright of every human being, but whether the deaf child is to claim his inheritance lies not only in his hands but in the untiring effort of his teacher.

The teacher of the deaf must have a basic knowledge of phonetics, an ear trained for sound, and a standard by which to judge her results. To the above requisites add the spirit of perseverance, for good speech is the result of persistent effort.

EXPOSITION AND PLANS FOR DEFINITE WORK IN INTERMEDIATE AND ADVANCED GRADES IN SPEECH

(ENFIELD JOINER, St. Mary's School, Buffalo, N. Y.)

For many years in the schools with which I have been connected it has been one of my duties to show visitors around the different classrooms. These visitors, not including teachers of the deaf, have been all sorts and conditions of persons. They have made various comments; not infrequently they have asked a question which gave me unpalatable food for thought. It was this, "Why do the little children talk so much better than the older ones?" Why, indeed? I would explain that in the middle school or intermediate grades, and in the advanced classes the vocabulary increased rapidly and that the number of subjects increased, too, so that the teacher had not the time to give to drilling on the speech as was done in the primary department. All the while my explanations didn't convince me that the implication of that question, namely, that the older children should talk better than the younger ones, was not both logical and tenable. Somehow, by somebody a solution of the question, How to better speech in the intermediate and advanced grades? should be found.

The excuse most commonly given by teachers was that which I have set down above, lack of time to devote to work in speech. The work the curriculum called for had to be covered. Anyway, was it a good plan continually to be interrupting a pupil when he was reciting to correct him? Was it better, I was asked, to block his thought process, dampen his enthusiasm, kill his interest by nagging at him about his speech—or just let it go? We don't let mistakes in language, arithmetic, the social sciences go—woe betide us if we do. Why overlook mistakes in speech? It has long been my conviction that we have poor speech because we accept poor speech. The teacher who will not accept it will soon impose her standards on her class, and when a class learns that its teacher will not let mistakes pass uncorrected, a minimum of correction is necessary.

The crowded daily schedule was used to excuse the omission of the speech period. "I have so much to do, I simply can't get a speech period in." Or, "Of course, they are talking all day long. They are getting practice in that way." Alas! they were. I think that in the

intermediate grades, at least, the school day should be so budgeted as to allow for a speech drill period of from 20 minutes to half an hour, with work for that period just as carefully planned as for any other period of the day. It is true that speech is language, language speech. Language, speech reading, speech, and the other subjects which make up a child's mental menu must form an interdependent whole, but on a well-integrated daily schedule each subject has its own place, just as a well-balanced meal may be composed of a soup, a salad, an entree with vegetables, and a dessert.

One reason it is so easy not to "get the speech period in" in the upper classes is that preparation for that period has so often been haphazard, hit-or-miss, unsystematic. The teacher is apt to aim at nothing, and consequently hits nothing. For each of these grades we need definite objectives. I used to argue that speech was made or marred in the first years in school, but that was, if you will pardon Army slang, just another way of "passing the buck." It is true that it is the function of primary work to lay the foundation on which the intermediate and advanced departments must build. But one trouble has been that instead of going ahead and raising the structure, we have just played around on the foundation, and oftentimes that was not too secure.

Very briefly, I want to offer some objectives to be pursued in the middle and upper schools.

1. Secure independent action on the part of the child in applying what he has been taught in the primary, so that he may increase his speech and language vocabulary by making every new word he encounters in print or on the lips speak itself to him. This means that he must know the secondary spellings and the principles of syllabification so as to be able instantly to break each new word into its component parts and reassemble it as a spoken whole.

2. Train the child to recognize the stressed or accented syllables in words so that the rhythm of the word may be established in his mind. Even in our unphonetic English it is so easy to determine where accent falls in words of two or more syllables. It falls, except in a few cases of arbitrary rulings, on the long syllable or syllables, made long by the presence of a long vowel, a diphthong, or a preponderant number of consonants. To my ears, accent is a matter of length and strength, strength being a byproduct of length.

3. Develop ability to determine the key word or the stressed word in the sentence. We call this "expression." "Expression" will go far toward relieving the monotony of the deaf child's speech, just as it makes the speech of the hearing person alive and interesting.

4. Secure unconscious combination of natural continuities or the running together of consonant sounds of similar physiological formations so as to eliminate the staccato quality of artificial speech. We call this phrasing and to a large extent intelligibility depends on intelligent phrasing.

5. Increase the rate of speech. But here let me sound a warning. The greatest care should be taken by the pupil not to drop sounds or syllables, for such careless elision, more than any other defect, makes for unintelligibility in the speech of the deaf.

6. Work for gain in fluency, in facility, in naturalness of expression. Since we like to do that which we can do easily and well not only better speech but more speech is the result of such conscious gain.

All this is not the work of a few weeks or a few months or a few years. It takes time. In planning her work, in originating her devices, in selecting her materials, the teacher in the upper grades has great latitude. I need not say that at all times the work should be practical and usable and closely correlated not only with school-room subjects but with life situations. I have never seen any sense in having pupils stumble through lists of long polysyllables which they will never use, and drone through poems which mean nothing to them. I listened in once on an intelligibility test being given to a class of totally deaf pupils, and when the listener failed to get this sentence read to him by one of the girls, "The snail scratched the piano keys," I was more annoyed with the teacher who had written the sentence than I was with the child who had not been understood.

A rapid increase in the vocabulary in the grades under consideration is not only to be conceded, it is to be devoutly hoped for. There is a right way and a wrong way to present new words. "A thing rightly taught will be rightly apperceived." A thing rightly apperceived will be rightly remembered. If the teacher in presenting each new word gives it first in speech, then in writing with the word phonetically marked and divided if it needs such markings, the chances are that the pupil can make that word his own. I recall once seeing a teacher—an excellent one at that—write the word "Cuba" on the slate behind her and hurry on with what she had to say about Cuba in a current history lesson in a fourth grade. Visitors were present so I made no suggestion that the first vowel be changed. Several years later one of the pupils in that class began telling me something about "Cub-ba". I checked and found that half that class had gone through the intervening years thinking it was "Cub-ba" because a teacher had failed to take the infinitesimal bit of time to mark the word properly. In order to mark every new word that needs it, the teacher must be exceedingly alert in thinking in phonetics. Like Jack of jumping prowess, she must be nimble with her fingers, quick with her wits.

Now and then I have heard this statement, "He came to me with poor speech. I don't believe anything can be done about it." Even when a case seems hopeless, persistent effort on the part of both pupil and teacher will result in improvement. Besides, we don't bring this defeatist attitude to our other work. In all other subjects we expect progress and improvement. Why not in speech?

The plain truth is that we all need to become more speech conscious. We let defects pass because we fail to hear them. It is of supreme importance that the teacher develop "the hearing mind" as well as "the hearing ear." Her normal training course should have given her a basic knowledge of phonetics and a standard by which to judge results. But she must train herself to hear. She must do it by concentration and effort. It is just as simple as that.

I have found that giving tests at stated intervals does much to arouse and stimulate pupils. Sight reading will test accuracy, fluency, the ability to apply. Written tests may be used to show the pupils' knowledge of the principles of speech. These may consist of exercises for the marking of consonants for breath or voice, marking vowels for quantity, identifying and exemplifying spellings, marking words and sentences phonetically. Oddly enough, the test for intelligibility proved to be the most popular test. Pupils read or spoke original sen-

tences to teacher and principal and the fact that they could be understood gave immeasurable satisfaction.

Times change and ways of doing things change with them. But in teaching as in all things certain principles remain fundamental. One is that in order to learn and to retain, there must be concentration; in order to progress rightly, there must be thoroughness. In this paper I have purposely used a number of words no longer current in pedagogic discussions. But this is no pedagogic discussion; it is a straight talk from—may I claim to be a teacher? If only two of the simple words I have used are to be remembered, let them be concentration, putting the mind on it, and thoroughness. Concentration means learning, thoroughness means learning well. The past has shown us that progress is a process of evolution, of building on what has gone before which has been found to be good, secure, dependable. Revolution follows failure. But in admitting failure, we too often refuse to face the fact that "it is we, ourselves, dear Brutus" who fail in the practice of a theory while the theory itself is sound. The past shows us that, too.

One of the deplorable tendencies of our age is the readiness with which we discard old theories, old practices, old convictions, often because we have failed in our application of them. It is not only Herr Hitler who wants to establish "a new order"; many of us do.

I cannot close this talk without an appreciation of those early teachers of speech who gave us the foundations on which we try to build today. And those foundations came by the process of evolution, of the trial-and-error method, which is merely another name for our modern "research." Many devices in teaching speech in the early days of the Clarke School were tried out by Dr. Yale and her assistants. Visible-speech symbols and dictionary diacritical markings were tried and discarded before the vowel and consonant charts embodying the elementary sounds of English speech were evolved. Building on the work of those early teachers, we have made great progress. We realize now that speech is not static but the result of both position and movement. But there we go back to Dr. Yale's great law of combinations—namely, that the position of a sound may not be relinquished until the position of the sound following it has been assumed. But it took us some time to learn to apply that law.

For years teachers talked about training residual hearing. That was not a new idea when Dr. Goldstein and his coworkers came along and showed what thorough, scientific work could do along that line to help speech. Building on his work, miracles have been accomplished.

For years teachers gave sense-training exercises for the cultivation of touch and then failed to make any appreciable use of the tactile sense until Miss Alcorn's work with her two deaf-blind pupils and with hearing pupils showed what an invaluable aid the sense of touch may prove in the development and correction of speech.

These and other teachers working in quiet schoolrooms have developed new points in the technique of teaching speech, but they who have been most successful have built on the old foundations. In the Vermont hills a plain stone marks Dr. Yale's last resting place. On it are these words, "Prove all things; hold fast to that which is good." That is the counsel after a long experience in teaching speech in all grades that I would offer to young teachers: "Prove all things; hold fast to that which is good."

ACTIVITIES IN SPEECH CORRECTION CLASSES IN DETROIT PUBLIC SCHOOLS¹

(HILDRED GROSS, Detroit, Mich.)

It is a pleasure to have an opportunity to meet with the teachers of the deaf at this convention. Although the division of speech correction is organized as a separate unit, Detroit is fortunate in having an excellent cooperative program with the division for the deaf. As most of you know, this division is under the supervision of Dr. Gertrude Van Adestine.

This colored film was taken at the Roosevelt Elementary School, which serves as one of the teacher-training centers for Wayne University. The film is dedicated to Miss Clara B. Stoddard, who is one of two teachers who began the work in speech correction in Detroit public schools in 1910. Under the leadership of Miss Stoddard, who was supervisor of the department until her retirement in June 1939, the department has grown to one of 40 teachers. Speech-correction classes have been established in 151 centers.

The film has been used in methods classes at Wayne University, with school administrators and classroom teachers, and with parents of speech-handicapped children. Since we desired to obtain the natural response of the child, there was no rehearsal and the filming was done as the children reported to speech classes for the regular program. Mr. Merrill Mudge, photographer from our visual education department, recognized quickly what we were attempting to show and gave valuable suggestions from the standpoint of photography.

Pupils come to speech-correction classes two periods each week. The length of period is usually 33 to 40 minutes in elementary and from 50 to 60 minutes in intermediate and high schools. This varies somewhat with the school organization. Speech-correction teachers work with groups of children 4 days of the week. One day of each week is used for individual testing and diagnosis, individual help with seriously handicapped pupils, conferences with school administrators, classroom teachers, parents, psychologists, nurses physicians, and so forth. Case histories are kept on all cases. The activities of the teacher on this day, known as the coordination day, are extremely important in helping her meet the individual needs of the pupils. The average case load per teacher is 200 pupils. Most teachers work in 4 schools, although this varies somewhat with the size of the school. The number of pupils in each group varies with the seriousness of the case. We recommend from 7 to 10 pupils. Because of the large number of children on the waiting list, 15 children are taken in this kindergarten and first-grade group. Many of these pupils have fractional speech. The teacher is attempting to direct the development of speech and prevent major speech handicap. Detroit for many years has emphasized the importance of a program of prevention as well as a program of correction.

Careful training of fundamental muscles precedes or accompanies training of the specific speech muscles. You will note that these hear-

¹ These comments were made in discussing a colored film showing the activities in speech-correction classes. Comments which lost meaning without the background of the film have been omitted.

ing children with speech handicap have difficulty in following the teacher in this simple clapping exercise as they listen to the victrola.

Charles has mastered the art of naming the color as he puts the different colored pegs in the board. The marked difference between George and Helen in control over fundamental muscles is shown as they attempt to bounce the ball as they name the animals in the pictures. Strong kinesthetic control is established as Harry makes his voice (saying vowel sounds) follow the curve of the bean bag as it is tossed to the teacher. Children who have difficulty with words of more than two syllables may have training with bell-tapping exercises as shown before drill is given on accent in words, phrases, or sentences.

Most children in speech-correction classes have frequently been embarrassed in speaking situations. This has helped to produce a lack of mental and physical poise which sometimes makes an intelligent child appear to be dull. We believe that a careful analysis should be made and that activities should be selected so that the child can experience success. By using a positive approach and gradually increasing the difficulty of the activity, we find that one success leads to another, and the child gains the desired mental and physical poise.

The importance of rest and relaxation for general health is pointed out. However, since pupils come to speech correction for such short periods, little of the class time is devoted to typical relaxation periods. Pupils know the difference between relaxed and tense muscles and learn to understand that different activities require different muscle tonus. The children in the picture are saying and acting the familiar rhyme, "This is my quiet time; my hands and feet are still, my head is down, my eyes are closed; this is my quiet time." Pupils may remain quiet a few seconds after saying the rhyme. I am sure all of you have noted the relaxing effect of such selected material.

Although stress is placed upon improved posture, little formal drill is given in breath control. The danger of making the child breath conscious is avoided if breathing is controlled by the environment. Note the effect on breathing as the pupils walk with the music, blend vowels in series, or read the paragraph which has been marked off to indicate rest pauses.

Individual needs are met through the visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactual approach as pupils learn to speak rhythmically and to produce vowel and consonant sounds correctly. Tom is working before the mirror learning to produce the correct sound of *f*. Kenneth uses the bubble test to help him understand that the breath stream passes through the nasal passage in the correct production of *m*, *n*, *ng* sounds. John is working to improve tactual discrimination. Jerry feels the breath stream on the back of his hands as he works on *s* and *wh*.

Lea works with "Sounds for little folks," learning to name the pictures from left to right. We hope this training will help to prepare him for first-grade reading. The metronome is used with Bob as an auditory stimulation to breath control while reading words. Jack reads short sentences without the use of the metronome, keeping the same rate. He remembers how easy speech is when properly produced.

Muscle tension and emotional disturbance which may be produced by continued stimulation of fine muscles over too long a period is shown. This picture was taken early in the filming. The teacher waited for the photographer to stop and continued with the exercise

long after the time when it was of value and to the point where it might be considered detrimental. It is left in the picture to point out to student teachers and parents the need for alertness as to the effect of any exercises upon the individual child.

Pupils who have gained the required degree of skill in any activity may be called upon to lead the group. We believe that this practice helps the child to develop powers of leadership. It also helps him to make permanent the new speech habits which he has acquired. These two pupils working with "Activities for the correction of lisping" have learned how to make the sounds correctly. They are working as partners, checking each other in the use of the new sounds which they have made.

An effort is made to select vital vocabulary for speech drills and to have the pupils give speeches that are interesting and purposeful. We feel that pupils should be able to speak while standing quietly or while participating in an activity. Exercises requiring thinking, judging, saying, and doing are a part of the program. Games are selected which insure a definite carry-over of new speech habits in out-of-school activities. Visits to speech classes are encouraged in order that pupils may have the advantage of meeting the changed audience situation and that visitors may understand the problems of the speech-handicapped child. With this background of experience pupils are more apt to apply at home and in the regular classroom each new skill or speech habit as it is mastered. Parents and classroom teachers have played an important part by cooperating in the speech-correction program.

AURICULAR TRAINING AND RHYTHM

Leader: Marshall S. Hester, California School; chairman, E. W. Tillinghast, superintendent, Arizona School.

Paper: Beginning the Acoustic Training Program, Elizabeth H. Johnson, supervising, acoustic department, Illinois School.

Discussion: Josephine Bennett, Lexington School; Mary Scott Russel, Louisiana School.

Mr. TILLINGHAST. I am not going to make any remarks to start this program because our section meetings have been running overtime. I think we will start off with the program. I would like to introduce, first, Mrs. Elizabeth H. Johnson, supervising teacher, acoustic department, Illinois School. She will answer any questions after she finishes her paper.

BEGINNING THE ACOUSTIC TRAINING PROGRAM

(ELIZABETH HUGHES JOHNSON, supervisor, acoustic department, Illinois School)

Acoustic training, auricular training. These words have come to mean a kind of magic to a great many people—as if by merely saying them and waving a microphone somehow a miracle could be brought about. In consequence, many have rushed to buy hearing aids from the nearest salesman, have used them occasionally, and then have sat back with the vague statement that acoustic training is just wonderful. A few have examined the results of this "approach by magic" and have furiously raised their voices to condemn all acoustic training. The vague enthusiasts have made rather foolish claims—

practically any deaf child could be made a normal hearing individual simply by donning a receiver. The vociferously negative critics have made just as illogical statements—that the laws of learning inexplicably did not apply to hearing.

Both of these groups of persons have forgotten or ignored the fact that acoustic training means just that—training, and that in all its definitions training means a line or succession of facts; that the verb to train, according to Webster, means to form by instruction, discipline, drill, and so forth, to educate narrowly, to teach so as to be fitted, qualified, proficient, and so forth.

In the schools where acoustic training has been regarded as training and where a rigid test-teach-test regime has been followed, it has year by year become more certain that in almost any average school for the deaf 20 to 25 percent of the children can hear or can be trained to hear as well as a hard-of-hearing adult using a hearing aid. Maybe it does take years, maybe most of us teachers of the so-called deaf are middle-aged and consequently less enthusiastic; but if you can face calmly the fact that in a certain period of time four to five thousand children in schools for the deaf can be made to hear accurately enough to have their hearing the major instrument in their acquisition of speech, language, and an education, then you don't get enthusiastic about the same things I do.

The importance in the life of any child of hearing or not hearing cannot be calculated, but certainly as teachers of children with hearing handicaps it is our duty to release them as far as we are able and in every way we are able from their handicap. Certainly it is our duty in this day with the equipment now available to train the hearing of a large part of our group.

If you happen to think, in view of the great publicity and attention given acoustic training in the past few years, that educators everywhere are already fulfilling this duty, let's look at the figures in the January 1941, statistical issue of the American Annals of the Deaf. There are 86 schools for the deaf, or about 40 percent of the total number in the United States, which have no children receiving their education wholly or chiefly by hearing. Likewise many of the 132 schools which do have pupils receiving their education wholly or chiefly by hearing list very small percentages of their total enrollments under this classification.

At least one school which has a creditable amount of hearing-aid equipment does not list any child as receiving most of his instruction through hearing.

One of my teachers went five times during one school year to inspect the hearing-aid equipment of another school for the deaf. It was never in working order during that year.

One school I know of has a large number of hearing aids. The microphones are pushed into the corners of the classrooms and ignored, the most noticeable fact about the equipment there being that it is always covered with dust. The supervising teacher, when queried, says she doesn't know how much the hearing aids are used, that the children using them are profoundly deaf, and it doesn't make much difference anyway.

During this past year a child was transferred from another school for the deaf to our acoustic department. She had more than 50-per-

cent hearing and it proved to be easily trainable, but she was unable to recognize a single word through hearing alone—not even her name—when she entered.

Another child, upon her transfer to our school's acoustic department because her mother said she had been using a hearing aid in a certain school system for 3 years, proved to be totally and congenitally deaf.

Probably many schools for many reasons have been relatively unsuccessful in their efforts to create a program of acoustic training. These unsuccessful schools as well as those which have made no effort at all should be urged to make a new start. Don't say it can't be done because you haven't done it. Don't feel it isn't worth while because you have failed. It can be done, it is worth while. So let's begin.

First, test your group of children. Determine as nearly as possible the material you have to work with.

Audiometer tests to determine hearing acuity should be given all pupils old enough to indicate a response. Be sure your operator is trained to do the job and is thorough, as erratic scores may be very misleading.

Although there will of course be exceptions, the children should fall roughly into the following classifications:

Type of pupil	Loss in decibels	Loss stated in percentage
Problem children of one kind or another—usually emotionally maladjusted, frequently mentally retarded. Their ultimate placement should be carefully and individually considered. All, excepting an occasional aphasiac, should have speech and ability to interpret sounds.	0-30	0-24
Almost always the children in this group will be congenitally or adventitiously hard of hearing. At the Illinois School for the Deaf we have had no pupil in this group without some ability to interpret sounds. Almost every child in the group can be taught to understand well with a hearing aid.	30-45	24-36.5
Pupils adventitiously hard of hearing, congenitally hard of hearing, and congenitally deaf. With few exceptions these children can be taught to understand with their hearing.	45-75	36.5-60
This is the border-line group. In it will be found a few adventitiously hard-of-hearing children who can be reached with a good hearing aid. There will be no congenitally hard-of-hearing children except those who have progressively lost their hearing to this point. The congenitally deaf children in this group will usually profit by acoustic training and some of them can be given sound interpretation. However, most of the group should be in oral classes using hearing aids rather than in acoustic classes.	75-85	60-68
These children are very deaf and the main value of the use of a hearing aid with them will be speech improvement rather than the acquisition of a hearing vocabulary. Such work can best be accomplished in an oral class using a hearing aid.	85-95	68-76
At the present time with the equipment available, I think it is safe to say that children in this group cannot be given a usable hearing vocabulary. However, because of the limited work we have done with children with the degree of deafness here represented at the Illinois School for the Deaf, I am not prepared to offer any opinion on the possibilities of acoustic work with them.	95-120	76-100

In other words, I feel that almost every child with a loss no greater than 75 decibels, or 60 percent, belongs in an acoustic class the main object of which is to train the hearing to the point where it is the major instrument in the acquisition of language. Adventitiously hard-of-hearing children with less hearing than this and adventitiously deaf pupils probably also belong educationally in this group because their hearing has already been the means of the acquisition of language patterns. A few children with losses between 75 and 85 decibels, or 60 and 70 percent, can learn to interpret sounds, but their progress is so slow

that I believe most of these children belong in oral classes using hearing aids for speech work.

When the results of the audiometer tests are classified, the case histories should be carefully studied and the teachers consulted for observed indications of hearing.

As soon as a good hearing aid is available, every child should be given intelligibility or comprehension tests. By requiring the child to reproduce in writing dictated single words and simple sentences find out his ability to understand through the various mediums—hearing alone, a combination of hearing and lip reading, and—without the hearing aid—by lip reading alone. If you plan to train any child's hearing, you should know as exactly as possible his ability to interpret sound before that training is begun in order to decide what you need to teach him and also to measure his progress.

When first such tests were given in our own school we were greatly surprised by the very poor ability of the child considered congenitally hard of hearing to interpret sound without lip reading and the fact that even with lip reading his ability was only fair. Only the adventitiously hard-of-hearing children did well on the first tests.

Tests may be given to determine the child's probable response to training. Each child's ability to speak should also be considered when making up the acoustic classes. Very poor oral material and children with deaf parents or with several other deaf children in the family have on the whole been problem cases for us as far as acoustic training is concerned. Speech intelligibility tests similar to those originally given at Clarke School by Dr. C. V. Hudgins have proved to be a valuable instrument of measure for us.

The very young children who cannot yet be tested on the audiometer must be observed over quite an extended period and individually tested by a teacher whose personality is attractive to children and who has made friends with them.

If reading tests such as the Gates battery and if tests measuring general academic ability such as the New Stanford are not given regularly in your school, by all means they should be administered before starting the acoustic training program and regularly thereafter. Every teacher bringing acoustic training to her aid is hoping for improvement in one or another form of the language arts and the above-mentioned tests are a fairly reliable measure of progress along these lines. What could be more ineffectual than to say, "Oh, the hearing aids have helped the children so much." How much? "Oh, I don't know—just lots and lots. It's wonderful. They hear the birds and the bees and the trucks going by." How much better to say our children were at this level in speech, speech reading, hearing, reading, and so forth, and after a year of doing thus and so they have made this much progress.

Measure and know what you start with, follow a definite program, remeasure and discover what you have accomplished, revalue and re-outline your program and try again. We have all heard the educational formula, "Pretest-teach, retest-teach," and nowhere is it more important than in acoustic training.

Now for the hearing-aid equipment. Near your school will be a number of others doing acoustic work. Visits to these schools should be arranged with several ideas in mind, one of them being to examine

the hearing-aid equipment. Listen to the hearing aids, observe how the teachers use them, find out the original cost, the yearly repair cost, the ease or difficulty of getting repairs, the teachers' opinions of the equipment, the electricians' opinions. Note whether the device is portable or stationary and consider the advantages of each arrangement. Notice the range of the microphone and consider the teaching technique this feature will require. Find out everything you can by writing to teachers in other schools. Read the ads in the *Volta Review* and look up in back numbers Miss Timberlake's periodic reviews of what's new in the hearing-aid field. Take notes and if, after comparisons, a hearing aid seems worthy of consideration ask the manufacturer to install it in one of your classrooms for trial. If possible, try several hearing aids at one time for a competitive test.

As one measure of the hearing aids, you might choose a group of pupils with a wide range of scores on the first intelligibility tests, using the results of those which tested hearing alone and a combination of hearing and speech-reading. Several forms of these tests may be prepared and the picked group of children tested while using each of the several hearing aids.

Of course, the next step is to buy as many and as good hearing aids as the money available will purchase, and it is right here that a great many programs have bogged down. In recent years it has not been uncommon to hear teachers say that they are anxious to start an acoustic training program but that hearing aids just are not available. But if you want hearing aids, plan your program and go out and get them. It is your job to show the people who hold the purse strings—the board or the welfare department—that hearing aids are necessary to your best progress in teaching. Sell them the idea. During your tour of neighboring acoustic classes probably you will have seen impressive demonstrations of the work, and it should not be difficult for you to arrange to have a small group from one of these schools show your board what acoustic training has done for the pupils. Collect facts and bombard your board members with them. For instance, the number or percentage of pupils in your school with 40 percent or more hearing and the speech-reading scores compared with the same situation in schools able to combine hearing with speech reading for classroom instruction. Discover the rate of acceleration among pupils using hearing aids, comparing speech scores, reading scores, and scores for general ability. Get the figures on the children who have returned to the public schools from acoustic departments and their success there. Enlist the help of the newspapers in publicizing the benefits of acoustic training.

I know of one teacher who offered to pay with her own money for a group-hearing aid to use in an experimental class in order to prove what it was possible to do. This offer was made after other methods to sell the idea of acoustic training had failed. It was accepted by the board, which, however, changed its mind and purchased and paid for four group aids. The results from the four acoustic classes in turn were impressive enough to influence the board to begin a large-scale acoustic training program.

If you can't buy a group device, maybe you can buy a \$30 desk set. Possibly your school electrician can put together an instrument; if he

can't maybe a pupil or a teacher's husband or brother can. At least you can improvise speaking tubes. Certainly every teacher can take the trouble always to talk loudly to pupils known to have hearing or even directly into their ear. You can do anything, no matter how much trouble you may encounter, if you sufficiently desire the hearing aids.

Two more things must be carefully considered if the acoustic training program is to have more than accidental success.

First, in the light of what has been and is being done, what do you really believe about acoustic training? What underlying philosophy will guide you? It should be stated clearly, for yourself and all who work with you, and it should influence you in arriving at all decisions on any course of action connected with the program. Otherwise, you will proceed in an aimless way and at the conclusion of your efforts you will have proved or disproved nothing.

Second, when you have formulated your policy, plan an orderly program which will as nearly as possible achieve your ideal. In other words, know where you want to go and decide on the best way to get there. Don't, in the name of acoustic training, go through a lot of disconnected maneuvers without having any idea of what you expect to happen or even of what you want to happen.

What you do when you have finally tested and assembled your pupils and hearing aids will depend entirely on your philosophy and on the program it has caused you to set up. Some of you will have speech improvement as your primary goal. Some will try for increased reading ability or speech-reading ability. Some will work first to build a hearing vocabulary. Whichever it is, how many of you would feel that a good beginning had been made if your pupils could hear, say, and read 70 percent of all the words used in present-day primers, 65 percent of those in first readers, 60 percent in second and third readers, and more than 55 percent in all other school books? The Dolch list of only 220 words will give your children this encouraging start.

And now in conclusion, each one of us, each school, whatever we have done through the year, must make a new beginning every fall. We must not let a feeling of failure keep us from trying again or a feeling of success—a dangerous sedative—keep us from seeking new ways to make our acoustic programs better. So let's begin.

Mr. TILLINGHAST. I think we will all agree Mrs. Johnson presented a very thoughtful and comprehensive paper in support of hearing aids and auricular training. We will now lead off with a panel discussion by Miss Josephine Bennett and Miss Mary Scott Russel. We shall hear first from Miss Russel.

Miss RUSSEL (Louisiana). I think we all feel Mrs. Johnson is exactly right. She has had experience, and she knows by working with these children the results obtained, and I feel that the keynote of Mrs. Johnson's paper is that every child with a loss of no greater than 75 decibels, or 60 percent, belongs in an acoustic class, the main object of which is to train the hearing to the point where it is a major instrument in the acquisition of language. Test groups have shown that such children can definitely profit and acquire a sense of language through this method of teaching.

We know every effort must be made to keep up the language of these children. Too many times we are endeavoring to teach pupils

by acoustic methods who could never profit by it. And how many times do we try to teach subjects instead of pupils? I think we must always keep that in mind.

Mr. TILLINGHAST. Now, if you can remember the questions you would like in a little while to bring up in regard to the first two discussions, I would like to present Miss Josephine Bennett, of the Lexington School. Since she has just come from another program she has missed out on the first section. I would like her to present what she brought over, now, and ask questions and have our discussion afterward.

[Miss Josephine Bennett reads paper. Applause.]

DISCUSSION OF MRS. JOHNSON'S PAPER

(Josephine Bennett, Lexington School, New York City)

Teachers in schools for the deaf have become hearing-aid conscious. It is a new field, and already the results warrant the enthusiasm shown by Mrs. Johnson in her excellent paper.

Mrs. Johnson is supervising teacher of the acoustic department of the Illinois School. This is a very large school, the enrollment being approximately 600 pupils. They have one building set aside as an auricular school. There are 13 classes and 10 group instruments, where children from the first grade to the senior class receive all their instruction through hearing aids. (Taken from Miss DeMotte's discussion, *Volta Review*, November 1938.)

With the definite, intense program of auricular training which Mrs. Johnson advocates, the results, in a few years, should be astounding and teachers will be interested to have statistics on what has been accomplished.

Miss Bodycomb said (*Volta Review*, November 1938): "Next June 1, auricular class will graduate and it is conservatively estimated that their progress has been accelerated by 2 years." Think what this will mean when acoustic training, as Mrs. Johnson conceives it, will be universally used throughout the schools for the deaf. Certainly the expenditures for hearing aids would be fully justified in the ultimate saving to the States.

How much more important than that is the fact that these children will be more normal and better adjusted, socially and educationally.

Unfortunately, at the present time, few schools are able to grade their pupils both as to academic achievement and hearing loss as Mrs. Johnson has been able to do.

There are many types of hearing aids on the market and new features are being added constantly to make them more beneficial. In the Lexington School, the Bradford-O'Connor hearing aid is the only type used. Each child has a microphone at her desk, which allows her to hear the teacher's voice and also the voices of all the other members of the class.

Eleven classes use group hearing aids throughout the day except for one period, when those classes not equipped with hearing aids exchange classrooms.

Acoustic training begins the first day a baby enters the nursery school.

Acoustic stimulation is first given with music on the victrola. As soon as a child can respond definitely to whether or not the music is

on or off, that child is given a test on the 6A audiometer. (Each child in the school is tested at least once a year on the 6A audiometer.) From musical stimulation one proceeds to recognition of different tempos. As soon as the child shows awareness of sound, that child is given speech over the hearing aid.

Specific data cannot be given on the total number of children in the Lexington School falling into the various decibel loss groupings that Mrs. Johnson has just spoken of, but in one composite audiogram of 209 cases out of 300 children, the loss in the speech range (512—2048) was found to be 92 decibels—the percentage, 74. Thirty-four children became deaf after the age of 2. Of these, 13 children became deaf after the age of 6. The majority of these 13 were meningitis cases and now have no usable hearing. Therefore, 11 percent of our entire school population may or may not have had established hearing when they entered school.

The teachers in the Lexington School have pooled their acoustic programs from which a progressive program will be formulated to be put into use in the fall.

This program will not be made out according to grades, but will continue in progressive steps of achievement under four headings:

1. Gross sounds.
2. Music.
3. Speech—developmental and corrective.
4. Language growth—from the very least to the greatest amount possible for any child to hear.

All four of these activities proceed practically simultaneously. However, the "gross sound" step is soon dropped, since it is used merely to introduce a variety of sounds to which even the youngest child can respond.

The other three steps are developed and enlarged throughout the child's entire instruction.

Some of our classes are well graded, but because of the relatively small enrollment of our school, it is impossible to make the fine acoustic grading that is done in the Illinois School.

In one class (whose hearing losses are shown on this chart) there are two children who are able to get connected language, through the hearing aid, whether this be conversational or from primers. One child is aphasic; all the others fall below 80 decibel loss.

It has been very difficult to work with these children.

Just what can be done so that the profoundly deaf child will feel herself a part of the acoustic program?

This is one type of exercise, which has proved of value in holding such a class together acoustically:

Cards are put on the Plymouth chart, containing such single pictures as a boy, a birthday cake, a black cat, flowers, a merry-go-round, etc.

The next step is to use these same words in larger pictures, as: (1) A boy has a black cat; (2) A girl has some flowers; (3) A girl has a birthday cake.

The children with sufficient hearing are able to take the third step, involving a greater amount of language, as: (1) The boy is holding a black cat; (2) A girl is blowing the candles on her birthday cake.

This exercise is presented in one of three different ways, according to the child's hearing loss.

1. If the child's hearing is sufficient, she interprets what is heard through the hearing aid.

2. When the hearing loss is too low to distinguish what is being said, the tactile sense is added and by this dual approach, the child is often enabled to get the meaning of the speech, heard, and felt. As an additional aid, the teacher taps the syllabic impulses on the child's arm or shoulder.

3. When the hearing loss is so great that these means fail, the child is given the same words with her eyes open, so that for every child a measure of success is achieved, using the method best adapted to her individual needs.

If commands are used, these are written on strips of cardboard. The members of the class can see the written form, watch the teacher's lips and hear at the same time, while the child listening at the microphone responds in pantomime.

As a result every child, no matter how deaf, feels she is getting satisfaction to herself and, strange as it may seem, can hardly wait to take her turn in the acoustic period. No teacher need feel discouraged, because no child is discouraged.

And again, strange as it may seem, the whole class derives pleasure from the music played on the victrola, though only the children with the greatest amount of hearing may recognize the tunes they hear.

The major objectives of using a hearing aid are to have better speech, more fluent expression, a less monotonous tone, and an increasing knowledge of the beauty of words.

In the Lexington School one exercise the children enjoy is putting unfamiliar words (diacritically marked) on the blackboard for them to pronounce, such as Philadelphia, hippopotamus. A child often says, "Philadelphia—that's beautiful."

One day the teacher was reading Dark Pony from Our New Friends from which this excerpt is taken:

So the little gray squirrel jumped up behind the puppy.

"Go, go, Dark Pony," they said. And away they went galloping, galloping, galloping, galloping.

On the road to Sleepy Town.

How happy they all were.

They sang and sang and sang.

Soon Dark Pony began to go slower and slower and slower and slower.

He was coming to Sleepy Town.

The children stopped the teacher. "Please say that again." After it was read the second time, they said, "Once more, we like that."

The next day, Mary Ann, who is very deaf, said to her teacher, "Last night I dreamed about Dark Pony galloping."

Mrs. Johnson speaks of getting others so interested in the hearing aids that they will go out and get them from board and welfare departments. In the Lexington School the Parents Association has collected enough money to purchase three group hearing aids, which will be installed this fall.

This is a splendid thing—to have the parents interested in the speech of their children. It is an added incentive to the children themselves, who go home over the week end, to know their parents are eager for them to have more normal speech in order that they may be more socially adjusted to their hearing brothers and sisters and to the friends with whom they play.

To quote Dr. O'Connor (Volta Review, November 1938) :

In the order of their importance to the majority of the pupils in schools for the deaf, therefore, I should list the objectives of acoustic training as follows:

1. Speech development and correction.
2. Discriminate use of residual hearing as a major medium for language interpretation, which, when combined with lip reading will accelerate the pupil's educational program markedly.
3. Development of the aesthetic sense through realization of the beauty of sound.
4. Improved mental hygiene because of ability to hear, even though they may be able to hear only slightly.

And as Mrs. Johnson says:

We must not let a feeling of failure keep us from trying again or a feeling of success—a dangerous sedative—keep us from seeking new ways to make our acoustic program better—so let's begin.

And to add to that, let's keep on going.

Mr. TILLINGHAST. Miss Bennett has presented a very fine paper on the program which they have at the Lexington School. And now, if any of you would like to offer questions to any of our speakers, we have a few minutes for that.

Dr. RANKIN. Miss Bennett, to what extent do you use in your program of acoustic work a sort of relaxed period of music?

Miss BENNETT. The children have music quite frequently. They love it. They are not told when to put on their hearing aids and when to take them off. They do just what they feel like doing. If we are going to tell them anything they say, "Oh wait, until I get my hearing aid on." Some children who are very deaf only wear them when we are having exercises and music. They all like the music.

Dr. RANKIN. Do you feel that should be a definite part of an auricular program? I am thinking of a period when children are not required to do anything but enjoy the music.

Miss BENNETT. I think the lovely thing about music is that you can say to everybody, "Stop when you are tired and let's have some music." Maybe you can take 2 minutes to have music, maybe have one piece.

I ask them what they want and they tell me. We put that on and play it, and I say, "That is enough." After awhile they ask if they may not have some music. There is no definite time for music.

Dr. RANKIN. One question further. Would you concede that to be the correct procedure if you wanted to go into the field of appreciation of music? You would proceed along that line, would you not?

Miss BENNETT. I think I would.

Dr. RANKIN. You would introduce a different selective system from the children's selection, wouldn't you?

Miss BENNETT. The children have their own little records. I have many, many records, and they know much more about it than I do, and they decide what they want and when they want it, usually. One afternoon when it was raining the children asked if they could stay after school, and I said "yes," and I was interested to see how long they would stay. That was a class last year, which had more hearing. They stayed until they had to go to supper, from 3 to 5:30, and then they didn't want to go.

Dr. RANKIN. I believe, Mrs. Johnson, you were using a method of having records available and letting the children select those almost any time they wanted to?

Mrs. JOHNSON. We have portable victrolas, and larger victrolas. They all have large wheels and can be moved easily from one classroom to another. A very large part of our rhythm program is introducing the child to various instruments. The children have favorite records, which they like to play.

Dr. RANKIN. I notice one teacher said something about letting the children go to the cabinet and select a record and put it on whenever they wanted to, and it seemed to me that would be a relaxing experience.

Mrs. JOHNSON. I think it is very valuable for the children. They all love it. Once a week we have a junior league meeting for all the older youngsters. They are privileged for 2 or 3 hours to put on any record they want. They listen to the teachers play the piano. They have radios in their own dormitories, which they play practically constantly.

Dr. RANKIN. Just as a matter of discussion, I think we are missing a great deal in our acoustic work by not going back more and more to music as a means of helping children get sound and rhythm, and that sort of thing, and I have the feeling that that can be acquired perhaps almost as naturally as the normal child acquires it by simply having access to the records and being able to go there when they want to, and play. I am wondering if we ought not to do more with just relaxed enjoyment of music.

Miss BENNETT. I think that is a very good idea; perhaps just 2 minutes at a time, when they are through with some work. They like it any time.

Dr. RANKIN. I had thought about setting aside a room in the dormitory, with hearing aids there, a whole set of headphones, so the children might come into this central room and use it at night or any other time. What do you think, Mrs. Johnson, of that sort of thing?

Mrs. JOHNSON. I think it is very excellent. We have wanted to do that very much, but we have never had a group instrument to spare. We always find some other class simply must have it.

Miss BODYCOMB. In the advanced department of the Pennsylvania School we have rotating teachers rather than rotating classes, and during the interim when one teacher passes from one floor to the next we might be standing in the hall and hear bedlam coming out of several rooms. The boys and girls make a dive for the phonograph as soon as the teacher leaves the room. They put on every patriotic record as well as dance records. They get a good deal out of it, even those who have very little hearing.

Dr. RANKIN. I have the definite feeling that we are missing a lot, Miss Bennett, right there in the schools generally.

Miss BENNETT. By not giving enough music?

Dr. RANKIN. By not having enough time for children to go and enjoy it with a hearing aid.

Miss BENNETT. I think more and more we are doing that.

Dr. RANKIN. I think so, too, but it is just beginning to be done, I think.

Miss BENNETT. We have done it quite awhile, I think.

Mr. TILLINGHAST. Miss Russel, would you like to comment on this topic?

Miss RUSSEL. I believe it would be a great advantage to children with a great loss of hearing. I feel that children who are hard of hearing perhaps, get enough music by using the hearing aids through the radio, but I think we could drill with the children who have a great loss of hearing.

Mr. TILLINGHAST. In other words, those with a great loss of hearing tend to get rhythm and that is about all.

Miss BODYCOMB. We have one class of deaf children which you might call the third-year group in the advanced department at Mount Airy, who are profoundly deaf. Most of them lost their hearing through spinal meningitis. The majority of them have hearing vocabularies and very good speech. They frequently sneak into these hearing-aid rooms and grab hearing aids and put them on. All they really get is a sound perception, but they get a lot of enjoyment out of it. We have a lot of fun asking them if they know what piece is being played, and it is surprising how, through the rhythm, they can tell you the names of almost all of those pieces. They take a guess at it sometimes, and other times they really seem to get a great deal out of it.

Miss NUMBERS. You might be interested to know how we solve that problem at Clarke School. We have a good deal of music appreciation in the lower school, introducing the children to sound. Of course, we do not have hard-of-hearing children. We have not more than three or four hard-of-hearing children in our whole school. It is necessary to introduce the children to sound with the use of victrola records and music of that type. As the children come up into the middle school, however, they are beginning to use their hearing for more practical purposes, and we feel that the school day is altogether too short anyhow to teach speech and lip reading and all of the subjects that are necessary, and we don't spend very much time, in fact, we spend almost no time in the classroom on listening to music. Oh, occasionally we do, but it is really just a treat. However, we have in our playrooms hearing aids, and we have records in the playrooms. It is a wonderful period for relaxation. For instance, in the 15 minutes between the close of school in the morning and lunch time, you will see half a dozen or so listening to music at that time.

There are enough headphones so that each child has the opportunity of listening in, if he wishes to, and there is no compulsion about it at all. It isn't a classroom exercise, and they simply go and sit down and listen to music for relaxation as we do.

I might say we use our out-of-date hearing aids, which we don't feel are quite as efficient for carrying speech, but still are perfectly adequate for carrying music, for this purpose. That is what we do with our discarded hearing aids. We have them reconditioned and placed in playrooms after they have been put in as good shape as possible. We use them in that way.

Dr. RANKIN. Miss Numbers, you feel that is so valuable it is worth while to keep it going?

Miss NUMBERS. Yes; and the children themselves keep it going. It is fine for the supervisors, too. The supervisors encourage it, you see. It keeps the children occupied happily, and out of mischief. We also find out which child is interested in learning to hear and which one isn't.

In addition to that, we have made some home-made records of stories, just ordinary stories of which we have a printed form, and the child will sit down and put on the record and listen to the voice of the teacher and follow the printed form of that story. The children have gotten a good deal of pleasure in doing that, as well as in listening to music.

Mr. TILLINGHAST. There is one question which comes to my mind in regard to having group hearing aids or arrangements for hearing aids in recreational rooms, and for use outside classroom hours, and that is keeping them in condition. I notice it is usually difficult, even in classrooms, to get good care taken of the hearing machinery. I am wondering if there is some special arrangement, in the playroom or recreational room, which has to be made to keep things in condition. Wires get twisted, and if there is no one around, some child is likely to drop a head set. I wonder if you encounter that problem. The person in supervision should know something about it.

Miss NUMBERS. That is not a problem with us because the children care enough about hearing.

Mr. TILLINGHAST. In other words, you train the children to take an interest in it?

Miss NUMBERS. We have small groups, of course. There are not more than 12 children at 1 table where there is a group hearing aid. The supervisor is sufficiently interested that she, of course, oversees the use of the hearing aid, but usually it is the children who are interested in keeping the hearing aid in condition. They want to use it, so they don't damage it.

Mr. TILLINGHAST. I believe that concludes our meeting for this morning. In closing, may I voice my appreciation for the cooperative interest shown by all who have participated in our morning's program. I believe it has been well worth while. Thank you.

CURRICULUM CONTENT

Leader: Roy G. Parks, Georgia School.

Paper: Skills and Attitudes of Reading and Their Development, Josephine Bennett, Lexington School.

Paper: Reading in the Primary Department, Marie S. Kennard, supervising, primary department, Georgia School.

Paper: Reading in the Primary and Intermediate Departments, Margaret R. Paris, Georgia School.

Paper: Reading in the Advanced Department of the Georgia School for the Deaf, Kathryn V. Watson, Georgia School.

READING IN THE PRIMARY DEPARTMENT

(MARIE S. KENNARD, supervising teacher, primary department, Georgia School)

The subject of reading has but one limit and that is a beginning.

The aim of education is to enable the child to participate in the normal activities of life and to provide enjoyment for his leisure hours. There is no better way of doing this than by an effective training in reading.

We are surrounded by a "reading" atmosphere in the world today, and since reading is the means which opens the way to every other

subject, there is a greater demand for more efficient methods of teaching it than there has ever been in the past.

Most reading is done silently, and the teaching of silent reading has become so important that we are looking for new devices and additional suggestions as to ways and means of teaching it.

In order to secure rapid progress in the development of important reading skills and abilities, the instruction provided may be organized to advantage in terms of three successive problems of teaching. The first is to begin the development of reading habits through the use of various exercises based on the child's activities and experiences; the second is to introduce books and train him to read from them; the third is to train him to secure an increasing amount of information and pleasure through reading.

Our first aim is to create within the child a desire to read so that the process of acquiring this ability will be a pleasant task for him. We must train him to read rapidly and at the same time get thought from what he reads so that he can better meet present social conditions. There are many purposes for reading and many skills and abilities to be developed; consequently, the child who gets the most out of reading is the one who progresses most rapidly.

Skills must be developed at the proper time or progress is hindered, and the child will not be able to read according to his interest level. Unless these skills are introduced according to the child's physical development, the opportunity is gone and will never present itself again. By the time he has completed his years of primary training, he should have mastered the following skills:

1. Ability to express meaning and desires.
2. Ability to listen to stories and to comprehend them.
3. Ability to follow a line of thought.
4. Ability to retell a story either through pantomime or words.
5. Ability to recall experiences.
6. Ability to supply missing words in rhymes and stories.
7. Ability to repeat rhymes or brief messages correctly.
8. Ability to sense emotional coloration in stories read.
9. Ability to dramatize simple stories.
10. Ability to anticipate what is coming next.
11. Ability to classify pictures and objects.
12. Ability to carry on activities to develop interest.
13. Ability to discriminate between sounds and formation.
14. Ability to recognize reading situations, names of objects, and persons.

Formerly a word was learned through speech reading and speech before the written form was presented. We are convinced that this retarded the acquisition of language, and we no longer do it. The early learning of the written or printed word gives something definite and tangible on which the child can lay hold, so that his foundation for learning is strengthened and his progress in learning skills is speeded up. (Hereafter when speaking of the printed form, we are referring to work that is done in the printing shop and not hand printing by the teacher.)

The deaf child comes to school having had all kinds of experiences in observation, but with absolutely no means of expressing his reactions, and immediately his need of connected everyday language is

felt. In order to give it to him, it is necessary to present the simplest and most concrete forms. With the acquisition of language through printing and writing, there is a meaning to everything, and that meaning can be described. The written form presents a mental picture, and this ability must be developed before any degree of success can be had.

The teacher should be constantly appealing to the child's imagination. One of the most valuable skills a teacher can give the child is training in visualization, and this should begin when he first enters school. A child's thoughts are easily stimulated and the imagination kindled provided the teacher throws herself wholeheartedly into the work. Her aim should be live, entertaining language which brings to the reader distinct and interesting mental pictures. Since the child depends completely upon graphic representations for much of his knowledge, illustrations should be used to a great extent. There is no question of their value in developing powers of observation, concentration, and discrimination, and the best time to begin training along this line is in early childhood.

Reading should grow with the child's own activities and experiences. These make excellent reading lessons, increase his vocabulary concepts, and furnish a background for the reading to come later. It is necessary for the child to have a full concept of all his vocabulary. The hearing child get his rounded concepts through the ear, and the deaf child must get his through the eye. As the child grows up, his experiences will be richer and his sphere of interest will widen. Then corresponding knowledge should be drawn into the work of teaching. It is most important that the teacher be able to recognize each reading skill as it presents itself in any situation so that the skills may be presented at the proper time and the material used to the best advantage.

The child's practical experiences, his actions, reactions, thoughts, hopes, pleasures, and sorrows must be considered the proper building material. In this way everyday reading comes into use. The phrase "in natural circumstances" cannot be too emphatically stressed. We do not repeat often enough in natural circumstances the words that we desire the child to learn.

One of the most important things for a teacher to bear in mind is that the hearing child learns reading through the process of association, and the deaf child must do likewise. Therefore, it is of vast importance that new material be presented when circumstances clearly interpret the meaning and when proper motivation is present, for only under such circumstances is the new information likely to be retained. Everything the child is expected to use must be presented under right conditions, and the "follow-up" work must adhere to the same method. The reading thus learned not only has a value to him as a means of communication, but it is also emotionally a part of his inner self. It is the child's world and not the teacher's which should be transformed into living language. The teacher gives the correct skill, but she must try not to force upon the child material that does not correspond to his stage of development or which cannot be joined easily to his world. Such teaching requires alertness and inventiveness on the part of the teacher and a constant awareness of the fact that the deaf child can no more be taught reading by means of unassociated and meaningless

use of words and unrelated drills than can the hearing child. The resourceful teacher will find many opportunities for creating normal and natural settings calling for the response she desires. She will weave his new material into her silent reading, speech reading, arithmetic, and conversation, and will bring it into play outside the classroom as well as inside.

The teacher must exercise great care in the teaching of new skills. One skill must be properly assimilated before new ones are presented. It is better to give new and diversified work on an old skill until it has become the child's own than to burden him with new ideas when he has not thoroughly digested the old ones. When a new skill is taught, it should be so tied up with all that has gone before that in its teaching there is brought into use as many as possible of the skills already taught. It is this kind of repetition that makes the language the child's very own, for only by sufficient repetition will the reading skills be thoroughly learned and ready for use.

We should surround the child with an atmosphere of books and give him time to read for pleasure—not work. It is important for the teacher to read many stories with her class. She can be as dramatic as she pleases, and much conversation can be brought in as she tries to tie up the facts with the child's own experiences, thus creating interest in the printed page without any drill. These experiences and stories are dramatized by the child. This type of reading seems to give the deaf child the same satisfaction that a story read aloud gives the hearing child, for it is reading "just for fun."

We should tell him stories and then put them into his hands to read. He will soon be reading voluntarily. A child learns to read by reading, and it is better to read stories in order to learn language than it is to learn language in order to read stories.

To have in each classroom a reading table to which the child is at liberty to go whenever he has free time, is highly desirable. On this table should be kept various types of books suitable to the reading ability of the class and full of illustrations, for pictures are good bait to catch the unwilling little reader. Nothing succeeds like success, and it is important that there be success from the first and always. We want the child to feel that books are full of things he wants to know. Keen interest usually results when a child discovers that reading will contribute to his pleasure and to the increase of his information. There are not the difficulties of the past to overcome in persuading the deaf to read with enjoyment, understanding, and instruction, for simplified books, beautifully illustrated, and much new material as classroom aids have solved the reading problems for any teacher who seriously wishes to give her pupils a sound reading basis.

Comprehension precedes use, and from the first day of school our children come in contact with the printed form both in the classroom and in the dormitory. As soon as the child recognizes his own name in print, his chair, bed, and locker are labeled. He gradually realizes that his classmates' possessions are also labeled, and that other persons, places, and things have names. His teacher's classroom, desk, and chair are labeled as well as the various rooms and pieces of furniture throughout the building. The names of the matron, supervisors, maids, and others with whom the children come in contact are printed on cards and placed where they can be referred to conveniently.

Each child has the thrill of opening his own letters and boxes in the presence of his classmates. His belongings are labeled and kept on a table for this purpose. Here much natural language is absorbed and the idea is used in various ways. The phrases "John's balloon," "John's candy," and so forth, are first presented and then the corresponding statements "John has a balloon," "John has some candy" with drawings resembling as nearly as possible the real articles. On the opposite side of each card is "my balloon," "my candy," "I have a balloon," and "I have some candy." The child soon learns which side of the card he should use when speaking of his own possessions and which to use when another's are concerned. "Mine" is easily understood and used naturally. The verb "had" is placed over "has" after the balloon is lost or the candy eaten. In this way the child sees that the printed symbols have meanings and that they convey different pictures to his mind. Space on the blackboard is also reserved for the teacher to print and illustrate these phrases and statements as they present themselves. They are left on the board for some time and are read and enjoyed everyday. A great deal of pleasure is derived from pointing out the different children and what each has or has had.

From the first the necessary expressions and permissions are gradually introduced as occasions arise. We try to find illustrations for these, and from the illustrations clipped to the printed cards, the child soon realizes that each has a different meaning and learns which card to use to express his thoughts and wishes.

Pride in personal cleanliness is encouraged by the use of printed questions with the corresponding illustrations. "Yes" and "No" cards are used to answer the questions until the child is able to answer orally.

As soon as the verb "run" and the names of a few animals that can run are known, we introduce "can." This exercise is added to gradually as new nouns and verbs are taught. "Cannot" is taught by elimination.

Each child has a daily duty to perform in taking care of the classroom. A chart is made, and these duties are assigned by the week. In this way certain verbs that do not usually come up the first year are used in a practical way and their meaning absorbed.

We have found that many ideas are made clear and simplified by the use of printed cards. There is no end to the number of ways they can be used and, by carefully preparing her work, the teacher is able to save much valuable time. Each child can work independently and at his own rate of speed at a Plymouth chart while the teacher looks on, checks his work as he finishes it, and assigns more. In this way the child is given the opportunity to complete every assignment, and the teacher is able to plan her work so as to keep him on his toes. After finishing his work, he is encouraged to spend some time at the reading table; thus the fast worker is kept busy and does not become a disturbing element. Constant repetition in different settings is necessary, and the teacher must introduce many new pictures in order to increase the word concept and add variety to what would otherwise be monotonous drill.

An exercise that requires drawing and coloring is splendid for developing the child's muscular control, as well as his powers of observation, concentration, and discrimination. The teacher can designate the colors to be used, or she can leave it to the child's judg-

ment. Included in our training is some nature study, which helps the child understand why discrimination must be used in selecting colors. By using the printed cards, work of this kind can be varied and used to keep the children happily occupied while the teacher does individual speech work.

By using the material that is printed in the printing shop the teacher is relieved of this extra work and the child will not have the opportunity to recognize words by false clues, such as improper alinement, misplaced letters, and thumb prints. We try to eliminate all the confusion that we can and at the same time give as great a volume of material as possible. By the use of material printed in the shop we are able to accomplish this. The work is done by the older boys, and many valuable lessons are learned in correct alinement and spacing, neatness and accuracy, as well as economy in cutting.

Work sheets are prepared by the teacher and play a great part in our reading program. They are never used indiscriminately. Their underlying objective is to teach the child to follow directions. Each new word, phrase, or idea is presented clearly and carefully, the necessary repetitions given, and, as a final test, the work sheets are given. The child is not allowed to get help from any source, but must depend entirely upon himself. There is no need for confusion or questions of any kind if he has comprehended the previous exercises. Time is saved by using the work sheets, as he can go to work quickly and quietly on his own copy. They contain many types of reading skills and give the child an opportunity to work independently and at his own rate of speed. They are carefully planned and afford the teacher an opportunity to repeat the material in different forms and to correlate it with other subjects. This work is made to include the child's entire vocabulary and is a source of great pleasure to him, for there is endless variety in giving the necessary repetitions in new and different settings.

Our main objective at the Georgia School is to develop proper skills and attitudes and a spirit of cooperation among the teachers, officers, and pupils. We feel that the value of reading ability in the education of the deaf cannot be overemphasized. The child who can read rapidly and easily has unlimited means of increasing his vocabulary, learning new language, and acquiring information, besides the pleasure he derives from reading good literature. Certainly a subject so important as reading deserves a most important place in our curriculum, for on the skills involved in intelligent reading depend the future happiness and well-being of deaf children everywhere, and these skills must be developed at the proper time before any degree of success can be expected.

READING IN THE PRIMARY AND INTERMEDIATE DEPARTMENTS

(MARGARET R. PARIS, Georgia School)

If you have ever matched your wits with those of the author of a good detective story, lost yourself in the latest novel, traveled on a safari with a great hunter, browsed through all bookshops with that great browser, O. O. McIntyre, been hero or heroine in a world at war created by the pen of some of the greatest authors, or merely read the

headlines and sport pages of your daily paper, then you know how completely we depend on reading for amusement, information, news gathering, thrills, and excitement.

To get the deaf child to read for the sheer enjoyment of reading a good book is only one of the ultimate aims of this course in reading. Comprehensive reading, because it is the foundation upon which all the subjects he will study will be built, is, of course, to you as teachers probably of more interest.

It is my belief that the deaf child can be taught to read with as much comprehension as a hearing child of the same age level and mental ability.

For the teacher the first prerequisite to accomplishing this is a knowledge of the child. Second is the knowledge of the skills and attitudes he must know. Third is a pedagogical knowledge of the development of these skills and attitudes.

For the child the first prerequisites to accomplishing comprehensive reading are interesting experiences to enable him to interpret and understand the stories to be read and activities by which they will read. The larger the number of helpful experiences the child encounters, the broader will be his interpretive ability. Second, the child must have a reasonable facility in the use of ideas. This is the ability which is to make use of past experiences to solve problems and think clearly what has been read. Third, the child must have sufficient command of simple English sentences to enable him to anticipate the meaning of the passages he reads. Fourth, a desire to read on the part of the child is essential. This interest in reading will aid the child in interpreting and supply the motive that will carry him through the difficult passages.

A year of orientation is essential for the deaf child. This year is to be spent profitably to provide the young deaf child with new experiences.

The following are means of widening experiences for the child. These, of course, are on an elementary plane.

Physical experiences for a year's orientation:

1. Preparing a daily lunch.
 2. Making and keeping health rules.
 3. Making and keeping individual health calendars.
 4. Keeping teeth, skin, hair, and nails in good condition.
 5. Teaching child to bathe, wash hair, use a hand and hair brush, and the use of a nail file.
 6. Doing things for safety first. (Being taught the proper use of tools. How to cross streets. How to go up and down stairs.)
 7. Calling the fire department.
 8. Lining up.
 9. Using fire extinguisher.
 10. Taught the elementary rules of health.
 11. Taught to dress themselves properly.
 12. Preventing fires.
 13. Keeping room neat and orderly.
 14. Private ownership.
 15. Group play.
 16. Care of toys, room, and clothes.
- The constructional activities are:

1. Making stores—clock stores, grocery stores, etc.
2. Making post offices, houses, schools, depots, trains.
3. Designing or making costumes for themselves and for paper dolls and larger dolls.
4. Making individual toys from wood.
5. Making baskets from pine needles.
6. Fixing doilies, napkins, handkerchiefs, or scarfs.
7. Making dolls.
8. Making rag rugs.
9. Modeling things of clay.
10. Preparing for a party.
11. Finger painting, crayon and charcoal painting.
12. Making and decorating folders and portfolios.

A list of possible intellectual activities are:

1. Building a city.
2. Making a farm, dairy, railroad, or school.
3. Getting acquainted with the homes of animals near the school.
4. The study of bees.
5. Collecting moths and butterflies.
6. Collecting wild and cultivated plants and flowers.
7. Observing animals.
8. Observing common birds, homes of birds.
9. Making a collection of bird pictures.
10. Making a flower, rock, or vegetable garden.
11. Noticing the changes in weather.
12. Construction of houses and bird houses.

Some possible social activities are:

1. Listening to stories (40 or 50 a year). Example: Three Little

Kittens.

2. Making simple blackboard stories in pictures.
3. Dramatization of the story.
4. Keeping time to music.
5. A school band.
6. Marching.
7. Giving parties.
8. Giving assembly programs.

The motivating factor for this year, as for others, will be the child's interest and enthusiasm. After the year of orientation the child is ready for classroom study. He has the experiences gained from a year of carefully planned activities. Now he knows everything has a name and is eager to learn more. One can readily see that this year's training must be one of carefully chosen activities.

The teacher must not let her enthusiasm lead her to forcing her thoughts and attitudes upon the child. Encouraging individualism, creative thinking, and any natural talent the child shows cannot be overemphasized.

Caging a child's thoughts, imagination, and talents may make him an introvert, a socially maladjusted individual.

Among other things, the time element should be stressed. Some children naturally work faster. Others, if permitted, will get into a habit of slowness. They should be given certain things to do and a reasonable time limit set for completion of the task.

On entering the second year the child will have many experiences to go on. He will have a foundation for speech reading. He has been talked to, he has learned rules and made social adjustments that will enable him to be ready for classroom study.

The definite objectives for the teacher for this year will be the initiation of correct reading attitudes, of trying to get meaningful and interesting experiences from material; providing this meaningful content; proceeding analytically from the whole story to the phrase, then to individual work; creating a desire to read by means of a delightful and interesting content; securing a single objective center for the attention of all pupils by beginning with chart reading; providing special treatment of charts, boards, bulletin boards, etc., to facilitate reading practice; the organization of interesting activities to secure attentive repetition necessary to give skills in the elements of reading; mastering the technique of conducting drill games; and grouping children according to natural talents or ability, and giving special attention to the slow learner. Although these objectives seem rather rigid, the teacher's ingenuity and initiative will be used to the utmost.

The following are a group of activities suitable for this second-year group. Many can be added to this list as needed.

1. Provide experiences for stories, parties, excursions, etc.
2. Charts about the children's experiences.
3. Games for development of word recognition.
4. Use of action words and sentences.
5. Matching words and pictures (vice versa).
6. Learning nursery rhymes.
7. Story telling.
8. Dramatization of nursery rhymes and stories.
9. Making booklets.
10. Learning the names of labeled objects.
11. Learning to follow printed directions.
12. Drawing to illustrate stories.
13. Handwork.
14. Flash card exercises for instantaneous recognition of words.
15. Looking at books in reading corner.
16. Developing attitudes of joy and the use of a book, group responsibility, carefulness in handling books, developing an environmental interest.
17. Realization of pleasure of home, school, and community.
18. Building self-reliance.
19. Persistence in completing task.

After the completion of this year's work the child should have a rich fund of meanings related to childhood experiences. A knowledge of simple stories, some folklore, nursery rhymes, and poems. Also, he should have an adequate vocabulary to understand these. He should have the abilities to express meanings or desires in good oral sentences, listen attentively and with comprehension to rhymes and stories; to follow a line of thought and to retell a story either through words or pantomime.

Certain recalling of experiences should be developed. The child should recall words of rhymes or stories, repeat rhymes or brief messages correctly, sense emotional coloration of stories read, anticipate

what is coming next, dramatize simple stories, classify pictures or other objects, carry on activities for interest, discriminate sounds, recognize names of objects, own name, titles of pictures, and names of officers and employees.

These 2 years have been the preparatory years—preparatory to beginning reading. The following year is really your beginner's stage. For this beginning age the aims to be developed have been given as the association of meaning with written or printed symbols, developing a thoughtful attitude, interpreting simple passages thus securing simple experiences through reading, developing the meaning of familiar words, acquiring a large sight vocabulary, establishing correct basic habits of speed, word recognition, accuracy, wide span of recognition, regular progress along a line, accurate return sweeps of the eye from the end of the line to the beginning of the next.

Materials used in teaching reading in the beginning stage are work books, seat work, sentence and word builders, mimeograph work, flash cards, words, phrases and sentences, reading charts, pupils' booklets, children's newspapers, visual aids, bulletin-board displays, puzzle games, picture dictionaries, written direction and action sentences on the blackboard, a graph showing the progress of individual students.

Selection of stories for the class is one of the most important things to be emphasized for this age children. If necessary, they should be divided into groups having a like interest.

Select the story to be read for the following qualifications: Interest, a good opening and closing sentence, correct sentence sequence, short sentences uniform in length, repetition of words and phrases frequently but in different situations. On a set, standard vocabulary 15 repetitions are required. Phrases are not to be divided at the end of the line. The printing must be easily read. There must not be too much space between words or sentences.

Caution must especially be exercised on one point—carefully select stories that do not introduce too many new words. I have found this one of the biggest mistakes in many textbooks. Never having heard of a limit being set in the introduction of new reading vocabulary, I would hesitate to set one. Throwing new words at the child results in confusion and loss of interest in the story he is reading.

The teaching of reading, like the teaching of almost any other subject seems to be all problems to the teacher. One of "our" problems—maybe you have felt this a problem too—is the developing of a sense of humor and an appreciation of the humor in the stories the child reads. Often the deaf child possesses one, but it seems to be misdirected. He will find humor in situations we think are very pathetic. Sometimes he seems to think something very humorous, where everyone sees only silliness and bad taste in his laughter.

Dramatization of a story is one of the best ways to get the humorous story over to the children. Condensing the story and drawing sketches of it, then telling it through lip-reading appeal to their sense of humor. Letting the children illustrate a story brings forth many humorous pictures showing their appreciation of the humorous parts. Taking easily understood jokes and pictures from the bulletin board, and making drawings of humorous situations on work sheets help develop a keen sense of humor. I have given a unit on the comics found in newspapers and in the Walt Disney story books. The unit

served a triple purpose. It created an interest in newspapers, taught the names of the comical characters, and developed a sense of humor. The children quickly caught the humorous situation in the comic strip. Another possibility for the development of a keen sense of humor is the making of a joke book by the class. Each child can find funny pictures, drawings, or easily understood jokes and bring them to the classroom to be clipped and pasted in the joke book.

Do you realize how many expressions or so-called smart sayings the hearing child uses? Doubtless you do not, because these vary with the child and it would be almost impossible to make a list of them. Yet readers, magazines, and newspapers are full of them. To the deaf child they are usually "Greek."

For this reason we are teaching these. Just common everyday expressions that everyone uses like "high hat," "blue blood," "call on," "stand pat," and all the hundreds of others. These are taught by the use of pictures or drawings and explanatory sentences. Some can be dramatized for better understanding by the children.

The repetition of words introduced for the first time in a story is another problem. Of course, carefully selecting the story that gives these repetitions in many situations is one solution. Other methods used to get interesting repetitions are pictured word sheets. Draw the pictures and number them. At the bottom of the page put the group of words to be placed in the blanks. The children think of this as a game and quickly learn words taught this way. Matching lists of words with words or sentences that have the same meaning and that the children have already learned is another method they enjoy. Matching words of opposite meanings is often used; also matching synonyms, using yes or no statements, true or false statements, jumbled lists of words, multiple choice sentences, filling in blanks with the correct word, learning prefixes and suffixes, and playing games with words are used to get interesting repetitions of words.

By the time the child is ready to enter the intermediate department, he should have many of the necessary skills and attitudes developed. Among these will be the ability to follow simple printed or written directions, a vocabulary sufficient to read with comprehension simple stories, dramatize a story, recall nursery rhymes, stories, and some folk lore.

The intermediate department is divided into five classes, A, B, C, D, and E; with class A the highest and E the lowest class.

These children are in the wide-reading stage. The attitudes to be developed are a rich and varied experience through reading, strong motives for and a permanent interest in reading.

For classes A and B the abilities to be developed are:

1. Ability to look for thought in all reading.
2. Ability to get thought from printed page.
3. Ability to read with proper speed.
4. Ability to read by thought units.
5. Ability to master new words.
6. Ability to remember and reproduce.
7. Ability to memorize.
8. Ability to appreciate literature.
9. Ability to get essential thought quickly.
10. Ability to read maps, graphs, diagrams, and drawings.

11. Ability to use tables of contents, word lists, illustrations, and chapter headings.

12. Ability to follow directions.

For classes C, D, and E the following abilities are to be developed:

1. Ability to look for thought in all reading.

2. Ability to get thought from the printed page.

3. Ability to memorize.

4. Ability to master new words.

5. Ability to read with proper speed.

6. Ability to understand simple expressions.

7. Ability to follow directions.

8. Ability to comprehend simple stories.

These classes are taught by units. The children's interest plays the biggest part in the selection of the unit and stories. I will outline one unit used. Other units have been: Famous People, A Trip Around the World With Stories, Pets, the City and The Country—life, homes, industries, and so forth were contrasted—Play in Different Countries, Work, Adventure Stories, Fairy Stories, the “funnies,” Progress, Homes, and Bees.

To start a unit you must make a selection of suitable stories; then list them—title, author, and book; make an outline of the unit; know the skills and abilities you wish to develop; devise a system to check on the outcome of the unit and a system of test, and make a list of the related material and the trips, excursions, charts, maps, murals, magazines, and reference books available to be used with the unit.

THE UNIT OF TRANSPORTATION

Books used:

1. Story Pictures of Transportation, Beaty Basic book.
2. Friendly Hour, book 4.
3. Child Story, book 4.
4. Facts and Fancies, book 4.
5. Happy Hour, book 4.
6. Yesterday and Today.

Subject for research: Transportation.

Time to be spent on unit: Six weeks.

I. This unit is to be divided into three separate fields:

- (a) Land transportation.
 1. Methods.
 2. Stories of the different periods.
 3. Inventors (brief sketch of life).
- (b) Water transportation.
- (c) Air transportation.

II. How early man traveled:

- (a) Walking.
- (b) Carrying things on back.
- (c) Dragging loads along the ground.
- (d) First pack.
- (e) The drag.
- (f) Skids.
- (g) Litter.

III. Learning to use animals:

- (a) Fear of animals.
- (b) Dogs, first animal friends.
- (c) Camel.
- (d) Burro.
- (e) Llama.
- (f) Elephant.
- (g) Eskimo dogs.
- (h) Ox.
- (i) Horse.

IV. Wheels and resulting benefits:

- (a) Log.
- (b) Slices of log, hole in center, to make first wheel.
- (c) Cart.
 - 1. Harness.
 - 2. Yoke.
- (d) Resulting roads, highways.

V. Two-wheeled vehicles:

- (a) Chariot.
- (b) Jinrikishas.
- (c) Carts.
- (d) Bicycle.

VI. Four-wheeled vehicles:

- (a) Wagon.
- (b) Coach.
- (c) Stagecoach.
- (d) Covered wagon.
- (e) Buggy.

VII. Steam—its use and resulting benefits:

- (a) Inventor.
 - 1. Locomotive.
 - 2. Trains—Joining of East and West.
 - 3. Streamline train.
 - 4. Freight train.
 - 5. Workers on a train.

VIII. Travel in cities:

- (a) Horsecars.
- (b) Cablecars.
- (c) Streetcars.
- (d) Trolley busses.
- (e) Elevated trains.
- (f) Subway trains.
- (g) Elevators.
- (h) Electric locomotives.
- (i) Double-deck busses.

IX. Gasoline engine:

- (a) Horseless carriage.
- (b) Automobiles.
- (c) Airplanes.
- (d) Airships.
- (e) Motorcycles.
- (f) Busses.
- (h) Boats.
- (i) Trucks.
- (j) Tractors.

X. Highways:

- (a) Roadways.
- (b) Tunnels.
- (c) Bridges.

XI. Water transportation—before the sail was invented:

- (a) Wade.
- (b) Swim.
- (c) Logs.
- (d) Raft and pole.
- (e) Dugout.
- (f) Grifas, round basket boats.
- (g) Skin boats.
- (h) Birch bark canoes—paddles used.
- (i) Kayak.
- (j) Rowboat.
- (k) Canoes.

XII. Sails invented:

- (a) Sailboat:
 - 1. Skin.
 - 2. Grass.
 - 3. Reed.
- (b) Mast used.
- (c) Galleys.
- (d) Viking ships.
 - 1. Steered by oars at back.
- (e) Ships steered by rudders.
- (f) Packet ships.
- (g) Clipper ships.

XIII. Steam power:

- (a) Steamboat.
 - 1. Made of iron.
 - 2. Paddle wheels.
 - 3. Sails and a screw propeller.
- (c) Ferries.
- (d) Ocean liners.
- (e) Barges.
- (f) Battleships.
- (g) Freight boats.
- (h) Tugs.
- (i) Junks.
- (j) Gondolas.

XIV. Canals.

XV. Lighthouses:

- 1. Buoys.

XVI. Traveling by air:

- (a) Balloons.
- (b) Airships or dirigibles.
- (c) Zeppelins.
- (d) Airplanes.
- (e) Transportation planes.
- (f) Seaplanes.

XVII. Inventors of vehicles.

XVIII. People who used and lived at the time the vehicles were invented:

- 1. Pictures showing dress of people.
- 2. Streets.
- 3. Homes.

XIX. Material to be learned:

- 1. Terms and expressions used in connection with each subject.
- 2. How different people have traveled.
- 3. Comparison of the new methods with the old.

XX. Tracing some article exported from a foreign country until it arrives in our hands.

XXI. Materials to be used:

- (a) Related materials in textbooks.
- (b) Related books in library.
- (c) Maps and charts.
- (d) Pictures and murals.
- (e) Available research books.

XXII. Problems to be made:

- (a) Small models of clay and wood.
- (b) Pictures depicting every type transportation (to be drawn by children).
- (c) Making a collection of all the pictures of transportation appearing in magazines and papers.
- (d) Going on a trip to a depot, and an airport.

**READING IN THE ADVANCED DEPARTMENT OF THE GEORGIA
SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF**

(KATHRYN V. WATSON, Georgia School)

In order to understand the importance of the reading problem in schools for the deaf, we must have a group of clearly defined purposes and functions for reading and literature. The functions of reading may be summed up briefly as follows:

1. The chief function of reading is to gather the best thoughts and ideas of the race. There has been a necessity since the beginning of time for men to pass their ideas on to other men. This necessity caused the picture writing of the cave dwellers, the peculiar hieroglyphics of the Egyptians, and the invention of our own alphabet. These changing methods of transmission of ideas all involved reading or interpretation on the part of those to whom the thoughts were transmitted. If it were not for our ability to read and comprehend written and printed thought that has been accumulated from the minds of men, we should not have progressed to our present civilization.

2. Reading the thoughts and ideas of others is a splendid way to stimulate emotion and imagination in ourselves. Often ideas that have become a part of the personality can be traced to something that was read which influenced and stimulated the reader.

3. Reading develops the aesthetic sense. Carefully directed reading will lead inevitably to a permanent appreciation for good literature. We have only to note the censorship of reading in the totalitarian countries to realize what power lies in reading—what ideas and ideals are transmitted through reading alone.

Reading furnishes the child with information about the world in which he lives; it molds his ideals and his character, it influences him in his choice of a profession and helps him in maintaining that choice, and last but by no means least, it furnishes him with unlimited pleasure. On the magic carpet of imagination he may slip away to far places, to exciting adventure, or to situations which require understanding and sympathy. Reading is also a dangerous thing. Careless, misdirected reading habits are capable of inflicting irreparable damage.

No one can doubt that reading is a basic subject. Without reading ability the brightest children will lack understanding and achievement in their work. Again and again the little difficulties that arise in the use of textbooks and study assignments can be traced to the limited vocabulary concepts that have been developed. Language summaries as well as arithmetic problems are hard because the comprehension of printed materials has not been sufficiently built up. All subjects suffer alike because the pupils do not read carefully and follow directions well. Instances may be cited in all subjects—whether they be history, geography, mathematics, health, language, or literature—in which teachers and pupils struggle because basic reading skills have not been established quickly and effectively.

What are these all important reading skills that are so necessary then? They are the stepping stones that lead from darkness to light,

from ignorance to learning. These skills may be listed briefly as follows:

1. The ability to recognize words rapidly and accurately.
2. The ability to use judgment in answering questions.
3. The ability to answer questions that call for organization of ideas.
4. The ability to read at sight with proper ease, speed, and comprehension.
5. The ability to observe the sequence of ideas.
6. The ability to read for a definite purpose.
7. The ability to judge the relative importance of ideas.
8. The ability to obtain the central thought and to note details.
9. The ability to use effectively the table of contents, lists of words, and illustrations in books.
10. The ability to discriminate in judging characters.
11. The ability to suggest characters and arouse emotions.
12. The ability to scan or skim informational material at a rapid rate and select essential data.
13. The ability to discover problems and the solutions of them through reading.
14. The ability to recall facts, key words, quotations, descriptions, data, etc.
15. The ability to lay the foundation of effective study habits.
16. The ability to outline.
17. The ability to select the aim or purpose of a passage.
18. The ability to determine the validity of a statement.

It is important that all teachers be able to recognize the skills and that they be able to use them in preparing their work. Much difficulty in the use of textbooks may be caused simply because the teacher does not have sufficient knowledge of reading skills and their development. If the teacher cannot recognize the skills that are emphasized in a selection, how can we expect the child to do so?

All the skills named must be established before literature can be taught effectively. Masterpieces in literature are not written in words of one syllable. They are written in a vocabulary that is almost entirely unknown to the deaf child. We must remember that whereas we who have hearing can easily understand, it is difficult for the deaf child. We must remember that the deaf child must depend on his sight for the development of his concepts. Our concepts have been built up through many repetitions of them throughout our lives. We who hear are apt to underestimate the importance of building concepts for the deaf carefully enough. The pupil must be able to use glossaries, dictionaries, and association to determine the meaning of these words. Vocabulary concepts are the very foundation for understanding in advanced reading. The child must be able to comprehend passages, judge the importance of ideas and characters, observe the order of thoughts, and recognize the purpose of selection before he can hope to understand literature and appreciate it. He must be able to detect humor and realize the significance of expressions before he can fully read and enjoy literature for its own sake.

The big aim in teaching reading and literature is to develop sufficient comprehension and appreciation within the pupil, so that he will have the interest and the desire to continue reading for his own pleasure and education after he has left school.

Literature is a wide field. It offers many possibilities to the teacher, but at the same time this very breadth of subject places a tremendous responsibility on those who must select the works to be read and studied. Obviously the child can't read everything. Our problem is one of eliminating everything except the essentials and yet being doubly careful not to omit necessary steps in the child's reading development.

A tentative plan for 5 years of work in the advanced department might well include the following units according to the 5 years of this department. Each year includes six units planned for a period of 6 weeks:

I. Advanced preparatory year:

A. Units for 6-week periods:

1. Stories from the Arabian Nights.
2. Andersen's Fairy Tales.
3. Grimm's Fairy Tales.
4. Aesop's Fables.
5. Uncle Remus stories.
6. Famous people and their work.

II. Freshman year:

A. Units for 6-week periods:

1. Stories of King Arthur.
2. Stories of Roland.
3. Stories of Robin Hood.
4. Stories of the Norsemen.
5. Stories of Troy.
6. Stories of Greece and Rome.

III. Sophomore year:

A. Units for 6-week periods:

1. English ballads.
2. Stories from Dickens.
3. Fifty more famous stories.
4. English lyrics.
5. Famous English writers.
6. Tales from Shakespeare.

IV. Junior year:

A. Units for 6-week periods:

1. American short stories.
2. American poetry.
3. American citizenship stories.
4. American authors.
5. American nature stories.
6. Stories of famous Americans.

V. Senior year:

A. Units for 6-week periods:

1. Types of poetry.
2. Types of prose.
3. The world's great authors.
4. Narrative poems.
5. Dramatic literature.
6. Survey unit.

VI. Running units in all 5 of the years:

1. Poetry to be memorized.
2. Bible stories.
3. Plays.
4. Jokes and cartoons.
5. Vocabulary.

Reading and literature are best taught by means of units of selected materials. Unfortunately, the reading list of materials that are required is so varied that it is difficult to group them in units for study. In order to arrange these units it is necessary to supplement the list with a similar group and arrange them together. Units are built

according to type of material to be studied. In some instances one selection may be long enough to be a complete unit in itself.

In our advanced department at the Georgia School we have tried various devices to obtain better results. In order to emphasize famous words and quotations, charts were drawn illustrating them. These charts were at first placed on the public bulletin board for all the children to see. Then they were put up in the literature classroom. Each chart contained both the illustration and the quotation. They led the children to ask questions and to realize how much could be obtained through their reading.

The classes also gave plays on various occasions throughout the year. These plays established ideas and concepts that could never have been so clear from a single reading of the selection. The students are extremely interested in plays. For the presentation of the Courtship of Miles Standish a group of pupils worked every afternoon for several weeks just drawing the scenery on large cloth backdrops. From this project they learned a little history, a great story, and many new words.

In addition to this great work of literature, plays of other types were given by the lower classes, one of which was a fairy tale, Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs. Still another was an Easter pageant portraying the last days of Christ's earthly existence. Much can be said in favor of plays. They are our best means of establishing a permanent concept of the great masterpieces.

Reading work sheets may be used in all units. They are constructed to emphasize specific skills. These work sheets are typed, hectographed and given as both class and study exercises. After the class has been given a certain period of time to complete a reading assignment, the work sheets are given. They are arranged so that they test reading ability. Sometimes they are made to test vocabulary. These are of a multiple-choice variety in which the child selects the correct meaning of a given word. He may be told to underscore it, encircle it, or write its number in parentheses. In any case failure to follow directions is a complete error.

Sometimes these work sheets are built to check observation of details. These are usually exercises in which blanks are left which must be filled either from memory or by words chosen from a group of possible answers.

Often work sheets are given on which 10 or more brief paragraphs are written describing characters. In these exercises the name of the character is the desired response. Work sheets containing lists of quotations are also given frequently. On these sheets both the author and the source are required responses.

Children are led to select the main ideas of stories through the multiple-choice type of work sheet. On a work sheet of this type the direction would probably read: "Put a check after the sentence that is the main thought," or "Put a check in front of the main thought," changing the indicator and thereby necessitating careful reading of directions.

Memory gems are assigned once weekly. These are usually simple, short, well-known poems, songs, or school yells.

Along with the prepared units of classroom work, outside reading assignments should be given weekly. Through this unit the child

learns to work independently. The written reading reports that are required for each of these assignments are filed alphabetically. If the pupil completes his required number of books per month, his name is listed on the reading honor roll. At the end of the year the pupil who has read and reported the greatest number of books is given a prize for outstanding work in the field of literature. All the required books that must be read have been worked out into groups for the years in our advanced department.

Tests are given weekly in reading classes. Examinations are given at the end of the 6-week periods.

In the Georgia School reading is stressed in all departments and already we are beginning to get results. Teachers are required to give prepared study sheets daily that are related to their projects. These study sheets are given as reading and in accordance with knowledge of reading skills. Teachers know that they must not place directions too near the exercise, that they must double-space typing, and that they must not emphasize more than one skill on each sheet.

In a department in which each class has at least five academic teachers, the study work sheets reflect all the angles of learning to read. Each teacher is really teaching reading as it relates to his particular work. If no other benefit were derived from these study assignments, the time and effort they force the teacher to expend would be more than justified.

The Georgia School does not stop with this incidental teaching of reading. We have two reading departments. In our intermediate department the basic fundamentals are established. In our advanced department we add to these skills. We try to find the interests of the child and to combat the evil of individual differences by a plan of work that is broad enough and varied enough to interest all the class. Our aim is to make reading for the deaf what it is to the hearing—a guide and a friend.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Leader: Arthur G. Norris, Missouri School.

Panel discussion: Do We Need Data on Employment Possibilities for the Deaf? Same panel members as on Tuesday and Wednesday.

Mr. NORRIS. Do we need data on employment possibilities for the deaf? The New York School has a person in the school organization who advises as to jobs that are vacant and which can be filled by deaf workers, and then the school prepares the boy for the job.

Mr. RUSSEL. We do not have such a set-up in our school, but Texas has a similar system to that of the New York School.

Mr. NORRIS. Rehabilitation agents have taken some of our pupils and retrained them in other types of work. What about that, Mr. Thomas?

Mr. THOMAS. The vocational rehabilitation department's attitude toward the deaf and hard of hearing is a favorable one. Today is a period of golden opportunity for rehabilitation of the physically handicapped of all kinds, including the deaf. In most sections we have three field workers. To have a special one for the deaf (18 percent of the total persons handicapped) is out of the question. * * * It takes more than a vocational department to prepare a deaf person for

employment. It takes language, physical appearance, social intelligence. Rehabilitation agents are as much interested in the vocational intelligence as in the concrete intelligence that involves the skills. We are working more and more with the schools for the deaf to aid the deaf. Rehabilitation men have not understood the characteristics of the deaf, therefore they have been drawing back rather than going forward.

(At this point the discussion was interrupted for a consideration of resolutions submitted.)

I

Resolved, That because there is need of more effective placement service for our pupils, and because opinions differ as to which of the multiplicity of existing bureaus and officials can best fill this need, the vocational section appoint a committee to study the situation and to report its conclusions as to the best agency at the next meeting of this convention.

(Chairman Norris asked Section Leader Anderson to appoint this committee. In view of the fact that this committee will function under the direction of the new section leader (Mr. Norris), Dr. Anderson waived this duty and left the selection of the members of this committee to Mr. Norris.)

II

(Submitted to the convention)

Be it resolved, That this convention cooperate fully with the National Association of the Deaf in its efforts to secure the passage of the Walsh-Curtis-McCormack bill establishing in the Department of Labor a bureau for the welfare of the deaf; and be it further

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed by the president of the convention to work in conjunction with the National Association of the Deaf to this end.

III

(Submitted to the convention)

Be it resolved, That this convention inaugurate at the next regular meeting, an intensive training course for the benefit of vocational teachers; and be it further

Resolved, That the president of this convention be empowered and requested to appoint a committee of five members, of which the vocational section leader shall be one, to develop and put this into effect.

Mr. BARNES. I withdrew my resolutions in favor of the resolutions you have just approved. I am heartily in favor of the resolutions you have just passed. I would like someone from the floor to make a resolution to the effect that the resolutions committee take into consideration that there is a need for more advanced vocational training and the fulfillment of this need.

Mr. DUNN. I make the resolution that the resolutions committee look into the matter of a need for advanced vocational training and plan for the fulfillment of this need.

(Resolution seconded.)

Mr. GROW. I offer an amendment to above resolution: Have Federal aid to be administered through the vocational office in Washington, D. C.

Dr. ANDERSON. We have passed, in my opinion, a resolution which takes care of this. Let us wait a while for the establishment of a national vocational school. I move that this resolution be tabled. (Passed.)

Mr. NORRIS. Mr. Thomas, I would like to know whether or not the Federal Rehabilitation Service has made any survey concerning jobs for those handicapped by being deaf?

Mr. THOMAS. There has been no survey. There is an account made of those who come to the agency and then are placed.

Mr. KINDER. With regard to retraining, we felt it advisable to retrain in fields in which they could obtain employment. Guidance, training, and placement are the three things we work on. We receive no credit unless we can show that the person is employed. Therefore, placement comes first to us. Rehabilitation men take the responsibility of attempting to service or reservice handicapped people. From the graduating classes we have obtained employment and service for the students who wanted and needed the rehabilitation service. Many do not need this service for various reasons—marriage, or they find their own employment. Speed is a big problem. Many, many times deaf persons cannot hold jobs because they lack speed. With handicapped persons we must be very selective. We must prepare them for the jobs that are open. I realize that it is impossible that every trade be taught in the schools. Rehabilitation agents are able to offer many of the trades that the person wants which the schools are unable to offer.

Mr. NORRIS. I think that when it comes to speed most of us forget that we are dealing with adolescents. All adolescents are slow. Don't you think that we are expecting too much of these youngsters when we expect adult speed? Should we have our schools for the deaf maintain a placement service and field agents?

Mr. HARRIS. Rehabilitation agents have helped me a great deal. They wanted to know what my problem was and offered advice and offered to help in the problems of training. I believe that with the cooperation of the rehabilitation men you cover the situation more thoroughly. They have a greater standing than the officers from the school and I feel they are more capable of rendering better service than we can.

Dr. ANDERSON. The Oregon Association of the Deaf wanted a bureau in the State set-up. The available employment agencies knew very little about the deaf. Through several letters written to the Governor it was finally decided to appoint someone to the bureau who could sell the services of the deaf. Put in the bureau a man who knows the deaf and sell the employer to the services of the deaf. Put an agency for the deaf in the already established bureaus.

Mr. BARNES. In Illinois there are a good many placement officers. The rehabilitation men do not go out of their district to place the deaf. If we do not have our pupils already trained and ready for the job, the rehabilitation agent will have a difficult time training the pupils because of their lack of knowledge of the deaf.

Mr. THOMAS. Illinois has about 25 workers so that from the standpoint of numbers it could have two, three, or five who specialize in work for the deaf. There arises the difficulty of administration, when there are so many special workers. It has been the tendency to put on special workers only in cooperative measures where there was an appropriation for the need.

Mr. BARNES. We should have proper places for the training of the deaf.

Mr. NORRIS. I believe that Mr. Thomas means that it is the wish of his organization to help, but it is the question of being able to help.

Mr. RUSSEL. The South, in particular, has been unable to obtain the proper services for the deaf.

Mr. SMITH. Another idea for the solving of this problem is to have a person reside at the school, paid as are faculty members. I have a feeling that you rehabilitation men have difficulty in placing the deaf because you do not understand how to talk with them. These persons could conduct the testing programs; contact the employers. The greater facilities are at the school for learning of the habits of the deaf. It is difficult to place an individual in a position where he will be much better off than in another. A job is a job. Our pupils must realize that the first job may be a very poor one and in a different line, but it is just a stepping stone to a better one later.

Dr. ANDERSON. You wish to have someone in the school operating as a member of the faculty? The appropriation does not provide for such a program. We want to use the Federal funds for the deaf. If we work it out from the school we are not getting that money.

Mr. BARNES. The important thing is to get something done. The deaf are not so well adapted to jumping from job to job as the hearing person. What is the function of our schools? Are we limited just to educational ends that are to be used?

Mr. GROW. Rehabilitation services are in the position to know more than we do about the employment possibilities for the deaf. They are eager to service all groups. We should welcome their help and try to aid them.

Mr. COATS. My idea is this: If we really want to help our graduates, we can make it a policy to help them from the time they begin their schooling until the time they get work. It seems to me merely a matter of school policy as to how we spend our money. I think it wise to have a field agent who can work with the graduates and with the rehabilitation agents because there is always a need for such liaison work. Living in the school it is easy, but when the boy gets out of school it is a different story. I think it is necessary to have someone in the school to help bridge this gap. I do not like the idea of field agents attending to many duties rather than solely to these things. Our job should be to help the graduate.

Mr. NORRIS. It is necessary that there be a contact man who is familiar with the deaf and their problems.

Mr. WENGER. In Utah the superintendent arranged it so that such a person could stay and live at the school. When looking for students, I can see about the placement of the students and save time and money. This way there will be three departments working for the deaf—the school, the field agent, and the rehabilitation men. Employers give jobs on the basis of personality instead of skill. Skill comes in in holding the job after personality has won it. Vocational departments must train not only in skills but in personality at the same time. From questionnaires sent to employers I find personality ranked first in obtaining jobs and skill ranked eighth. The field agent should work outside and get information and pass it on to the superintendent.

Mr. THOMAS. They have such a placement service in North Carolina. In earlier years the cooperation was very close. Now it is not as it used to be.

Mr. NORRIS. Would the rehabilitation service welcome such a cooperation?

Mr. THOMAS. Federal rehabilitation has always tried to keep away from the Federal bureau policy. If Federal funds are available, they should be matched with State funds. The deaf are getting their share of the services from the rehabilitation. We are not serving any of the handicapped adequately. It is true that in every one of the States where the agents are cooperative a person is employed who understands the deaf and the sign language.

Mr. SMITH. I have a resolution that I move that this group adopt:

Be it resolved, That the vocational section appoint a committee to see about placing an individual or individuals in already existing bureaus that would best serve this need and report at the next meeting of this convention.

(Carried.)

Mr. NORRIS. What are we trying to do? We have established these large vocational plants in our schools for the deaf. What are our aims? Are we trying to be industrial arts in nature, or are we trying to be truly vocational in our work?

Dr. ANDERSON. My personal conclusions are, and I want you to take them as such, that a great deal of advancement and efforts to place our work on a higher plane have resulted in a change of terms, which I have come to conclude are not just terms. First it was to exploit pupils to lower the cost per capita. Out of that grew the idea of industrial training. Now we call it vocational. We have changed the term but not the method. We are aiming a little bit too high when we give the general public the idea that we are running a trade school and that we are turning out pupils who are ready for work. Our first problem is not so much the training of hands and skills. We are laying the foundation for trade training. We have too much of a gap between this school and the job. Let us properly evaluate our work and lay a good foundation and try to add an advanced training using the present set-up. When we consider right now the element of time alone we are doing practically what they used to do in manual training. Let us take what we have and make the best of it. The pupils have never learned what an 8-hour day is. They work only 2 hours. They must at some time learn to work 8 hours during the day or at night. If we do that, we have laid the foundation for a worker. The foundation is the most important part. Let the instruction be for a life as a workman and life with other workmen. We do not need a trade so much as we need a foundation trade school. The best place to learn is on the job itself. But the most important thing is to give those pupils the idea of what we mean by an 8-hour day. I advocate that we reevaluate our system.

Mr. BARNES. I believe that what our schools can do best is to build that foundation; but is it fair that the hearing person be given superior opportunities?

Mr. GROW. Will Dr. Anderson state definitely what he considers a proper way to do this?

Dr. ANDERSON. I would advocate that we start from the general shop and lay a foundation course according to the interests and

abilities of the student started in the general shop. Let us pick the handicrafts that have the best educational value and teach them how to work. We cannot finance specialized training in our schools. The modern idea is to give laboratory training, and the person does not receive the practical training that he should have.

Mr. COATS. I want to speak from the standpoint of the practical worker. I feel that as a deaf worker who has gone through the mill perhaps I can add some ideas to this discussion. I think that we should establish practical ideas with the pupils in our schools. When I finished, I had the idea that I was a first-class carpenter and the first thing I bumped up against was that I had to join the union. I had to join the union as an apprentice. It was a new idea that I was not a first-class carpenter. If we can be realistic and let our boys and girls understand that we are training them in several types of work and that they cannot be employed at full-time wages. What are we doing about defense work? Many communities have defense training classes. What is being done for the deaf in that respect? I feel that we can do something.

Mr. NORRIS. A gentleman told me today that there has been a need for deaf workers in the defense field and that a move was on foot to do something about this.

(The meeting adjourned until 9 a. m. Friday.)

HOME ECONOMICS GROUP MEETING

Leader: Catherine E. Brown, Louisiana School; secretary, Doris Norman, Oklahoma School.

Round table discussion: A Need of Reorganizing the Home Economics Course as Traditionally Taught, and the Introduction of an Active Junior Homemakers' Club as an Extra-Curricular Activity.

Miss BROWN. There is a definite and an urgent need for the reorganization of the home economics course as traditionally taught in the schools for the deaf. Homemaking being the most important vocation for girls in the North, the South, the East, and the West, we should be careful to include in our course of study all the aspects of instruction pertaining to homemaking. The course as set up in most of our schools today provides adequate instruction in cooking and sewing, but makes little or no provision for the other phases of the homemaking course. It is true that some of the schools make provision for a limited amount of instruction along some of these lines, but the emphasis thus far is not sufficient to meet the needs of the future homemakers.

In order more effectively to train the girls in homemaking, each home economics department should maintain as an extra-curricular activity an active junior homemakers' club.

Practically every public school that has an accredited home economics department has an active junior homemakers' club. These clubs have proven by actual demonstration the benefits derived by each girl who becomes a member. And through these members, these clubs are rendering an invaluable service to the home, community, State, and Nation. The deaf girls should be given the same privileges, opportunities, and pleasures given hearing girls; therefore, we as leaders of the deaf, should make it possible for them to become a part of such a splendid organization.

First, we shall consider the values and the aims of the junior homemakers' organization. These values may be listed as: (1) Good fellowship; (2) development of citizenship; (3) wise use of leisure time; (4) cooperation between organizations, and various departments of the school; (5) better homes, and (6) varied interests.

The aims of the organization are: (1) Personal development; (2) social welfare; (3) cooperation; (4) improvement of home economics department; (5) benefits to schools, homes, communities, State, and Nation.

To accomplish these aims a definite program of work for the club is essential. Some of the suggestions recommended are:

(1) Hold monthly meetings; (2) choose a theme for the year; (3) plan a calendar of programs for the year; (4) plan and follow a budget for the year; (5) publicize school activities in school and local papers; (6) make some improvement that will benefit the home economics department or the school; (7) make a scrapbook of the year's activities; (8) correspond with other clubs; (9) issue at least one news letter during the year; (10) cooperate with emergency programs.

After the club has been organized and creditable work has been done, there are possibilities of becoming a part of the State and National junior homemakers' organizations.

All information concerning State and National affiliation can be obtained from a State chairman.

There are many advantages derived from State and National affiliation. The advantages of social contact of deaf girls with hearing girls are innumerable, and best of all, the inspiration received through personal contacts at parish, district, State, and National meetings is sufficient to give life and freshness for a full year's work. Then, too, the news letters and information received by the clubs are very, very helpful.

Now as to whether we should or should not encourage national participation—one meeting at least—for the deaf junior homemakers' club is a question that requires much thought and deliberation. For this reason, it is probably best to postpone the discussion of it to a later date; perhaps at the next meeting convention of the American Instructors of the Deaf.

The junior homemakers of the Louisiana State School for the Deaf have requested me to ask you to deliver the following message to the girls in the home economics departments of the schools represented here:

We, the Junior Homemakers of the Louisiana State School for the Deaf, enjoy our club work very much. The club plans to affiliate with the State and National organizations in September. We have a vision of a National Organization of Deaf Junior Homemakers united in their resolve to make better homes.

When school opens in the fall, we hope a junior homemaker's club will be organized in every home economics department in every school for the deaf.

In closing I wish to say I sincerely hope that you will not only deliver the message to the girls, but, serving in the capacity of club advisors, you will assist the girls in organizing active junior homemakers' clubs.

I have with me here a copy of the scrapbook covering the activities of the Junior Homemakers' Club of the Louisiana State School for the Deaf, for 1940-41. I feel sure that the members of the club, who

assisted in making this record of the year's work, will be happy to have those of you who wish to do so examine its contents.

We shall now open the meeting for round table discussion.

Miss BROWN (Louisiana). Is there a need for reorganization of home economics courses to meet the needs of the future homemakers?

Mrs. V. ZIMMERMAN (West Virginia). Cooking and sewing alone do not meet these needs. A more integrated and complete course is needed to create a more home-like situation in our schools. A cottage set-up would be desirable.

Mrs. NELLE R. LARSON (Illinois). We need to be teaching child care and training and other similar work. Other phases of homemaking beside cooking and sewing are essential. An apartment is kept in the home-economics department in the Illinois school which includes a kitchen, dining room, and bath. Regular housework is done.

Mrs. DORIS NORMAN (Oklahoma). It seems to me that the girls do not feel the same responsibility in the dormitories as they would be in home-like set-up in their homemaking cottage.

Mrs. SARAH FRY (Iowa). That is true. I feel that doing the institution sewing in the homemaking department is a mistake. It fosters a feeling of dislike for sewing. The girls would enjoy their sewing more and learn faster if they made things for themselves, for their mothers, or for their little sisters. It would be better if they could select and pay for their own materials. I do not teach child care or family relationships in my department.

Miss BROWN. What adjustments could we make to meet our present needs?

Mrs. NORMAN. We could include the other phases of homemaking, such as: Boy and girl relationship, family relationships, child care and training, health in the home, economies of the home, interior decoration, and any other subject for which a need is felt. We must have a complete homemaking program.

Miss EDNA I. PAANANEN (Missouri). Our girls have had a garden which we feel has been a useful project. I think gardening should be included in the list. I am interested in finding out if any work has been done in placing our girls in cafeterias or other such places. I believe the unions will prove to be obstacles in this type of placement.

Miss MARY SCHMIDT (Missouri). Yes, you remember the girl whom we placed on trial for 2 weeks. At the end of 2 weeks she was dismissed, not for lack of skill, but because of personality and inability to adjust herself to the position. I feel that we need to give all our girls training in the general courses of homemaking and teach them first and foremost to be good homemakers and mothers, because we do know that nearly all of them marry and only a few of them go into industry. Perhaps their last 3 years in school could be spent in specializing in dressmaking, tearoom management, or child care.

Miss R. LARUE (Missouri). I agree with Miss Schmidt that we need a general course, to be required of all girls and, then, let them choose a course to specialize in later if they wish.

Miss BROWN. How may we bring about these changes?

Mrs. NORMAN. Let us go home and discuss this new movement with our coworkers, vocational principals, and superintendents. Service could probably be rendered this group by setting up some organiza-

tion to provide a means of contact among us so we may check our progress.

Miss BROWN. Are we agreed that such an organization be set up and a president and secretary be elected? [Unanimous agreement.]

(Miss Catherine E. Brown was by vote elected president of the Home Economics Group, and Mrs. Doris Norman secretary.)

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Leader: George W. Harlow, Pennsylvania School.

Paper: The Need for Greater Emphasis on Intramural Sports, W. Burton Moore, Missouri School.

THE NEED FOR GREATER EMPHASIS ON INTRAMURAL SPORTS

(W. BURTON MOORE, Missouri School)

INTRODUCTION

Intramural athletics, or athletics within the walls, are receiving greater interest and attention than ever before. The intramural program has made it possible for the mass of pupils not engaged in competitive interscholastic participation to receive greater physical, social, and mental training. It has provided the opportunity for each child to participate in sports activities for recreation without the emphasis being placed on winning and "spectatoritis."

There is no criticism to make against interscholastic athletics, but those who participate are necessarily limited to the few individuals with some degree of physical fitness and proficiency in skills. Intramural sports afford an opportunity for the majority of pupils less skilled to participate and to develop skills which have "carry over" value after their school days are over.

Because of their appeal to the less skilled and physically fit individuals, intramurals have made a rapid growth in the past 20 years. The period immediately following the World War saw an increase in interest in intramurals due to the success of intracompany competition in the Army. The interest has steadily increased since that time.

The intramural program is not a complete substitute for a required program in physical education. It has been a factor in making significant changes in that program. In physical education the emphasis is now placed upon teaching the fundamental sport skills. By doing this, a large number of pupils are prepared to participate in an all-sports program with some degree of pleasure. A supplementary intramural program affords the opportunity for pupils to satisfy the desire to participate in those sports in which they have developed fundamental skills in the required program.

Intramurals can make an important contribution to the objectives that physical education is striving for. However, it is to physical education in its broadest scope that we must look for a definite, graded, all-around program.

Intramurals should not be compulsory, but those who like to participate should have every opportunity to do so during out-of-school hours. The intramural activities should carry the same relation to the

physical-education program as Scout troops or clubs do to the department of extracurricular activities. You might classify the varsity athletics and intramural sports together, because there is no distinction between these two departments except in the grade of ability of the participants. Physical education, in other words, is made up of the following phases of the program, varsity athletics, intramurals, extramurals, health instruction, and health supervision.

One step in the early development of intramurals stresses the great need of such a program. Boys and girls have a natural desire for competition in sports and this desire has found expression in impromptu challenge games between individuals or groups of individuals who were not good enough to make the varsity. There was no organization or central control, but gradually it became evident that there was a distinct need on the part of the great mass of pupils who were not qualified to be on varsity teams.

In the early years of their development, intramurals were thought to be an excellent training ground for varsity teams. However, longer experience has taught us the real unselfish ideal which is expressed in those intramural programs which encourages all alike to participate, those who come in voluntarily as well as those who are least apt to exercise and yet who need active recreation more than any others.

OBJECTIVES OF INTRAMURAL SPORTS

A consideration of the objectives of intramurals will help to realize the possible benefits to be derived from participation in well organized programs.

(1) *Better health.*—The first objective in education is good health. Good health is best attained through a program of wholesome physical activity. Activities in which the large muscles of the body are used make an important contribution to health. Strengthening of these muscles aids in better posture. The organs of the body are also developed. The increased activity of respiratory system tones the body, eliminates waste products, and hastens the bringing of food to the tissues. Wholesome recreation helps divert the mind from too close concentration on lessons.

(2) *Recreation.*—Intramurals provide an opportunity for children to spend their leisure time in a profitable manner. During the period of adolescence it is especially important that boys and girls be employed in wholesome recreation during their spare time. Such activities tend to divert attention from those vicious forms of diversion that always make it hard for teachers and supervisors. The sports should not be too rugged or highly organized. Only those should be used in which mere participation is fun and hard training is unnecessary. Recreation is the primary object and not winning an award.

(3) *Group spirit.*—One of the fundamental urges of adolescence is loyalty. Our responsibility as educators is to provide opportunities in which loyalty may grow and develop in support of worthy ideals. By being a member of a team or teams a child feels that the school is his and amongst the group as a whole there develops a feeling of unity and loyalty. Pupils have little interest in being loyal to something that is not theirs. By increasing the number, variety, and

quality of these opportunities for loyalty and group spirit we increase the number of givers to the school as loyal and enthusiastic supporters.

(4) *Social development.*—Intramurals provide opportunity for co-operative sportsman-like contact amongst pupils. They have a chance to develop self assurance when thrown in company with other people. These are primary requisites of a happy life after school days are over.

(5) *Bodily improvement.*—Athletics develop endurance, strength, and neuromuscular coordination. These assets improve posture, carriage, and self-assurance.

(6) *Carry-over interest in sports.*—One of the great advantages of intramural sports is their adaptability to use after school days are over. With a knowledge of the rudiments of a variety of games and an average ability to participate in them, a lasting carry-over interest is developed which makes for happier, more wholesome lives.

(7) *Prospects develop for varsity.*—Although this is not a primary aim of intramurals quite often an intramural player develops to the point where he can make good on a varsity team. It is always gratifying to see this happen.

(8) *Improve scholarship.*—Wise participation in intramural sports usually has a beneficial effect on scholarship. This is due indirectly to healthful recreation which tones the body and builds up energy. Numerous experiments in schools show that "physiological age has a direct bearing on pedagogical age, or ability to do school work." Then there is the old adage in which there must be some truth, "A sound mind in a sound body," that has come down through the ages.

INTRAMURALS IN EDUCATION

We might speak of intramurals as education through the physical. As stated above, health is the first objective to be attained in education. According to Hinman—

The aim of health and physical education is to develop vigorous minds and bodies by promoting such health habits, physical activities, skills, attitudes, and knowledge as will enable the individual to make adjustments for right living now and in the future. Health and physical education contribute especially to effective health, citizenship, leisure, and character.

Thus we realize the importance of a sound intramural program. Such a program contributes toward all the other objectives of education as well as health because without good health, none of the other objectives can be attained. Intramural sports offer the best advantage in which to carry out the aim of physical education for the maximum number of children.

SOCIAL AND CHARACTER TRAINING

Leader: Rae Martino, Waterbury, Conn.; chairman, Mrs. H. T. Poore, superintendent, Tennessee School.

Paper: Important Tools in a Religious Training Program, Rev. Robert C. Fletcher, Birmingham, Ala.

Paper: Boys and Girls Week—A Citizenship Project—As Carried Out at the Arizona School for the Deaf and the Blind, Elizabeth Woodburn, Arizona School.

IMPORTANT TOOLS IN A RELIGIOUS TRAINING PROGRAM

(Rev. ROBERT C. FLETCHER, Birmingham, Ala.)

The usual Sunday-school program is the most important tool we use in our schools these days. While this is the best we can do, I offer for your consideration the building of an interdenominational church on your campus so your children can have the same environment as their brothers and sisters at home. They will be able to place God and His teachings in a different and more reverent place. The children now think our Sunday-school classes are nothing but daily classes. Let them pray in the church when they wish. Have all visiting clergy preach in this house of worship.

I will mention a few miscellaneous practical suggestions which can be called tools in a direct or indirect way and can be applied in our daily religious training program:

1. Emphasize the important part which character plays in vocational life and the training therefor.

2. Respect the individuality of the child; remember that there are no two just alike. Temperamental types are just as real and important as bodily characteristics.

3. Remember that the important thing is not what is wrong with an individual but why he is as he is. In mental hygiene we seek always to understand the reason or cause for maladjustments. Recognize that in fundamental respects deaf children are essentially like other children; their deafness is incidental and secondary, and while it makes a difference, it is still not the most important fact about them.

4. After discovering that a certain pupil is lacking in some particular quality, place him in situations that will tend naturally to develop this particular quality through his reaction to the social situation. Clubs and group projects may be utilized for this purpose.

5. All children, but deaf children especially, should be trained in self-reliance and not allowed to capitalize on their handicap or expect favors and special consideration as a matter of right. They are in danger of developing a weak, dependent, parasitic attitude in their relations to society.

6. Give them ample opportunities to make decisions of their own and choose their own course of action. There is a danger in having too many rules. Boys and girls need practice in forming judgments of their own and using their own will power in coping with problem situations in life. They must not always remain infants.

7. Children frequently misbehave in order to gain attention. Officers, teachers, and older children should be trained to pay no attention to such manifestations, so that the misbehaving child will not gain the sought-after notice.

8. Remember that athletic activities, sports, games, etc., may and should be made an opportunity for moral and religious training in the broad sense—training in fair play, courtesy, consideration for others, honesty, initiative, and so forth.

9. Pupils should be trained to assume more responsibility in planning and carrying out recreational programs.

10. Much can be accomplished through the study of the heroes of the Bible and the lives of successful men and women of the highest type.

11. The personal association of the officers and teachers of the school with the pupils can be made a powerful influence.

12. Moral instruction, threats of punishment or promises of reward, do not of themselves develop character. Ideals develop out of experience leading to satisfaction.

13. Moral precepts are best taught through religion. There should be a thorough undenominational religious curriculum. Any person who feels his responsibility to God will feel his responsibility to his fellow man.

14. Religious education in the effective use of leisure time is essential.

15. A "hobby activity counselor" would be a helpful addition to any school staff. Children, especially those who are handicapped in any way, need hobbies; and most of them need help in choosing and carrying out their hobby. Keep them busy.

16. Have a "religious story-telling hour" which will be not only interesting but inspiring and helpful.

17. Seek definitely to cultivate good sportsmanship—including the ability to take defeat or criticism pleasantly.

18. From earliest years insist on respect for property rights.

19. Deaf children especially need to be encouraged to take responsibility. Because of their handicap they are too often inclined to sit back and take no social initiative. Like other children (and perhaps even more so) they "take to" activity programs more readily than to passive listening or reading.

BOYS AND GIRLS WEEK—A CITIZENSHIP PROJECT—AS CARRIED OUT AT THE ARIZONA SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF AND THE BLIND

(ELIZABETH WOODBURN, Arizona School)

Boys and Girls Week is a national observance usually taking place between the end of April and the first week of May. It originated with Boys Week which was started in 1920 by the Rotary Club of New York City, and later spread to all parts of the world. Several years ago, the name was changed to Boys and Girls Week, and its primary aim is to focus public attention upon the youth of our Nation—the potential citizens of our world of tomorrow. The purpose of this week, as briefly outlined by the National Boys and Girls Week Committee for the United States, whose membership numbers about one hundred of our leading citizens, is fourfold:

- (1) To develop the potentialities of our boys and girls.
- (2) To acquaint the public with local boys' and girls' work.
- (3) To emphasize the importance of the home, church, and school.
- (4) To emphasize the responsibilities of youth citizenship.

The Arizona school in its 3 years of observing this week has obtained beneficial and satisfactory results. Aside from successfully impressing upon our children the importance of good citizenship, this observance has afforded our school an excellent means of winding up our extracurricular program and for the awarding of annual scholastic prizes for meritorious achievements. By terminating the extracurricular program a month in advance with appropriate ceremonies, the

entire school has been able to sidestep the usual "rush" that accompanies year-end activities, and thus to devote the remaining weeks of school to the preparation of final examinations, commencement, and senior class activities.

Boys and Girls Week is an 8-day observance, and the entire school staff from the superintendent down to the cook had a hand in assuring the success of this week as each was assigned to a committee for one of those days. Since the first day, Boys and Girls Recognition Day, which falls on a Saturday, is a community affair, we have ignored it owing to the fact that this week is not a red-letter week on Tucson's calendar at present. The week for us began on Sunday which was Boys and Girls Day in churches.

SUNDAY—BOYS AND GIRLS DAY IN CHURCHES

Objective.—To stress spiritual growth as essential to the complete development of boys and girls.

A nonsectarian Sunday school program to which all the children were invited was usually the order for the morning. It resembled as nearly as possible a program in an average church Sunday school with a faculty member acting as Sunday school superintendent. Several members of the faculty cooperated by training groups of smaller children to recite appropriate little verses and intermediate and older pupils to lead in prayer and "singing" besides relating stories from interdenominational school publications. It was a new experience for the children to have Sunday school all together and they enjoyed it so much that many of them wished it could always be that way. The Catholic children and the sisters who attended were very appreciative guests.

On another occasion the children were taken to their own churches in town and the teachers who accompanied them interpreted the sermons for them. This was greatly appreciated too.

Evening chapel was turned over to the older pupils, who had been given, in plenty of time ahead, a list of subjects dealing with character building, attitudes toward each other, general conduct and various other topics, upon which to prepare talks. Some of the sermonettes given, without coaching from the faculty, showed excellent thought and ideals.

Our Sunday school work is loosely organized, and naturally the committee encountered much difficulty in attempting to set some basis for the selection of the winners of the Sunday awards. To solve this problem, one committee held a quiz contest on Biblical lore between the boys and the girls and, strange to say, the boys, who are generally less religiously inclined, carried off the prizes of two beautiful pictures representing Biblical characters to grace the walls of their living room.

MONDAY—BOYS AND GIRLS DAY IN SCHOOLS

Objective.—To center the attention of the community and the country upon the problems associated with the educational development of boys and girls.

The children looked forward eagerly to this day because the entire school regime from the superintendent down to teacher of the beginners' class was in the hands of the pupils throughout the day, which

was full of amusing and interesting, as well as instructive, incidents for all concerned. The regular members of the faculty, who took a Roman holiday, actually enjoyed themselves.

Preliminary preparations were somewhat as follows: A meeting was held by the pupils in the advanced and intermediate departments a few days in advance to elect a superintendent, a secretary, and a supervising teacher. In the classrooms during each period the members of a class selected from among their own number a teacher to teach a particular subject. The prospective student teachers then made out lesson plans which were okayed by the true teacher before they were put into operation on the final day. This procedure was carried out in each intermediate and advanced grade, and as arranged almost every pupil, owing to the various subjects taught and the small number of pupils per class, had at least one class to teach.

One Monday of this week was particularly memorable to us. At 8 o'clock in the morning the new school staff took complete charge with the new superintendent for a day occupying Superintendent Morrow's office. The regular faculty and the office force, who abdicated in favor of the new regime, spent the day visiting the different classrooms, attending assembly and abiding by whatever rules were issued by the new school head through his secretary, who was always at his beck and call. It was very interesting to watch the pupils assume authority, and much useful information on teaching and disciplinary methods was picked up by the visitors on their rounds. Some of the children reflected much credit upon their teachers as well as showing fine traits of personality in themselves.

The new order was well received and respected as was evidenced by the proper response to a special notice, in the interests of personal safety, forbidding members of the regular school staff to take solitary swims in our outdoor pool. (This rule though rigidly enforced on the children was allowed to run lax in the case of staff members.) An order to the school matron to prepare a special table at dinner for the exclusive use of the new officers was courteously and promptly carried out.

Even the pupils themselves felt the wield of authority. Somewhere among the intermediates was a boy who had never taken his behavior as seriously as his teachers would wish, and this occasion was his grand opportunity for a really good time. Finally he attained his goal and was sent to the acting supervising teacher with a display of much hilarity on the way. But, strange to say, he returned in a short time looking very thoughtful, and was quiet and well behaved the rest of the day. Now, it happened that the supervising teacher was an "All American" football star, so we can draw our own conclusions as to the trend of the silent conversation which had taken place behind closed doors.

The supervising teacher was a busy person. He visited classrooms, criticized work, and made notes, and at the end of the day his staff of teachers turned in volumes of papers and grades for his perusal. We are happy to say that there were no unanticipated failures at the end of the year on account of the records of that day. For one day at least, all the pupils lived in an Utopia of high marks. The student teachers had all observed the Golden Rule!

At 11 o'clock, the acting superintendent, who had been busy all morning receiving callers, issuing orders, calling a fire drill, or performing whatever administrative duty caught his fancy, finally called an assembly. After passing out complimentary remarks on the wonderful progress his teachers had made during the morning, he gave a little talk on *If I Were Really Superintendent*, which had its serious as well as humorous points. The student teachers then took charge, and each regular faculty member had a chance to witness himself or herself in pantomime and to become acquainted with some little pet eccentricity which he didn't know he possessed. Such remarks as "Do I wave my hands like that when I'm talking!"—"Aw, I don't walk like that!" brought little consolation to the protestor as he promptly would be assured that it was a perfect impersonation. It also gave us ample opportunity to demonstrate whether we were as good sports as we expected our pupils to be. Laughter was loud and long during the display. Following, was delivered a long list of "Thou should nots" for teachers. One boy stated that they didn't like teachers to make fun of them if a boy and girl liked each other especially well. Another said a fifth-grade class didn't like being told that the third grade could do better if the former didn't happen to have a very good lesson. Still another wished teachers wouldn't collect in the halls at recess and discuss their charges. And so on. They gave us plenty of food for thought and brought home to us the truth that young people need understanding and guidance at times instead of ridicule and opposition.

Assembly was closed with the awarding of prizes to the boy and girl in each department who had obtained the highest scholastic standing for the year. This day lasted until evening when the Palo Verde Literary Society held its annual story-telling contest, an event of great importance to its members, to which the public was invited.

TUESDAY—BOYS' AND GIRLS' VOCATIONAL DAY

Objective.—To help boys and girls to obtain first-hand knowledge concerning various occupations.

The vocational teachers had full charge of this day. The usual morning activities consisted of an assembly during which some local businessman addressed the student body and after which prizes were awarded to the most industrious pupils in the vocational department. Following assembly, the students were taken on field trips to some industrial center. One time the girls were taken to the home-economics department of the University of Arizona, and to a meat-packing plant in town, while the boys toured the railroad shops, the university farm, and a local flour mill. In the afternoon the vocational shops held open house, and the entire school, especially the tiny tots and the academic teachers who are far removed from these spheres of activity, enjoyed visiting the shops and watching the boys and girls at work. The visitors ended up with refreshments served by the domestic science classes.

WEDNESDAY—BOYS' AND GIRLS' HEALTH AND SAFETY DAY

Objective.—To emphasize the importance of a sound body as a factor in achieving the greatest success in all undertakings.

The school physician and nurse usually served on this committee. The morning program included a talk by some leading medico in town on ways to maintain good health, followed by health plays, skits, and demonstrations on first aid, cleanliness, care of the sick, life saving, etc. The main feature of the program was the crowning of the king and queen of health with due ceremony. The successful candidates for this honor were chosen among those pupils who, besides having no absences from school on account of illness and no serious reports from the hospital during the year, could make the best showing as to general sound physique.

Special attention was given to the menu for this day, and posters on the bulletin board and in the dining room informed the children as to the vitamin- and calorie-content of each item of food on their plates, and its contribution to bodily health.

THURSDAY—BOYS' AND GIRLS' DAY IN CITIZENSHIP

Objective.—To impress upon boys and girls that it is their duty to take an intelligent interest in civic affairs.

The supervisory staff under the leadership of the deans were responsible for this day. Attention was centered on the dormitories where the children always have opportunity to exercise their citizenship duties. Pupil deans and supervisors took complete charge on this day, thus relieving the deans and housemothers of their regular duties. At morning assembly, some city official would outline our duties as American citizens with special emphasis on school citizenship. Then followed awards to the best school citizens of the year. Selection was determined by the daily records of the pupils as listed on the citizenship charts which formed the basis of grading each pupil monthly in the dormitory, and sending out quarterly reports to parents on the child's progress outside the classroom.

A special feature of one of these assembly programs was a mock trial staged by the civics class and which was wholly instructive to the pupils from a civic standpoint. With the exception of the judge who was a University of Arizona law graduate, the witnesses, lawyers, and plaintiffs were drawn from the personnel of the civics class. Four unsuspecting teachers were summoned to the stand to face the grave charges preferred against them. Among other cruelties, the plaintiffs claimed that they had been deprived of freedom of speech in the classroom during recitation periods. Another brought an assault-and-battery charge against one teacher who found it necessary to administer the rod across the palm of his hands. All proceedings were carried on in true court fashion, and there was plenty of oratory and thunder in the arguments over the misdemeanors of the inarticulate defendants who were finally acquitted by the judge on the grounds that they were entrusted with the care of the children by the parents during the school term and therefore had rightful authority over their charges.

A tour of some civic center, such as the courthouse or the city hall, was on the day's calendar. The evening generally found the boys and girls attending a meeting in their respective dormitories to hear their pupil deans commend, condemn, or counsel them on their general behavior and their attitude toward each other and their superiors.

These lectures were often not without some frank confession on the part of the acting deans that the way of the supervisor was hard unless the pupils willingly cooperated.

FRIDAY—BOYS' AND GIRLS' DAY IN ENTERTAINMENT AND ATHLETICS

Objective.—To guide the natural instincts and high spirits of youth into activities which will build manhood and womanhood.

This day was dedicated to the athletically minded students. During morning assembly, some locally known coach or recreational director delivered a talk on the value of athletics or on sportsmanship. Demonstrations by the pupils of good and bad postures in various types of bodily movements and of remedial exercises to correct postural defects were often given. Then followed athletic awards for achievement in various branches of sports. Assembly was closed with the presentation of prizes to the best all-around boy and girl athletes with sportsmanship as a deciding factor in selecting the winners. The afternoon and evening of this day were usually filled with some athletic event, such as an annual track and field or swimming meet, or boxing and wrestling matches.

SATURDAY—BOYS AND GIRLS DAY OUT OF DOORS

Objective.—To stress the importance of the out of doors as a background to mental, spiritual, and physical development.

BOYS AND GIRLS EVENING AT HOME

Objective.—To stress the mutual responsibilities of parents and children as members of the family group.

Activities began in the early afternoon with an outdoor program of stories, games, and wading for the primary children, and recreational games followed by swimming for the older students. A bountiful picnic supper was served on the front lawn, and prizes awarded to the most outstanding Boy Scout and Girl Scout. The culmination of the whole week's events was a formal dance or social affair sponsored by the Boy Scouts or Girl Scouts, and was well attended by the school family and friends.

In conclusion comes the question of what was the value of this unusual week. I shall attempt to mention a few of the points which were especially noticeable to us:

(1) For one thing, older pupils were much impressed with the problems to be met in the administration of an institution. They had given little thought to this and had looked upon rules and regulations as things to be endured instead of the foundation of organization.

(2) Pupils learned that a teacher's path is not strewn with roses, and that she must study and prepare her own work just as she expects them to do with theirs. They realized that she is a coworker instead of a dictator.

(3) Pupils gained more comprehension of the fact that school work is promoted entirely for their benefit, and that much effort is spent to put them in touch with the outside world.

(4) Vocational training, citizenship, and health were redecorated with a new importance.

(5) Since the entire school personnel had a hand in this week, the value of cooperation in any successful enterprise was repeatedly demonstrated.

(6) The final day of play and sports crowned the community spirit fostered by the activities of the week, and not to be left unmentioned were the gems of wisdom picked from some of the programs.

Our school, of course, is small and young. Time and experience may improve a good deal upon such programs as we have described, and perhaps there are other schools represented here that have observed Boys and Girls Week on a much grander scale. But, however that may be, we feel that it is a project well worth trying.

ART

Chairman: Lois T. Kelly, Missouri School.

Paper: Posters, Geneva B. Llewellyn, Wisconsin School.

Paper: Toy Making, Catherine Torgeson, Kansas School.

POSTERS

Given as a short paper and a demonstration

(GENEVA B. LLEWELLYN, Wisconsin School)

To teach poster art effectively is a challenge to any art teacher. From the making of the simplest posters in the primary grades, through high school and college, this field holds unlimited possibilities and is thought provoking to both teacher and pupil.

The study of poster design contributes a broad education in the understanding and use of lettering, design, color, the proper handling of a variety of mediums and brings into practice all of the standardized principles of art.

Poster art in the commercial world costs millions of dollars yearly but returns these millions manyfold to advertisers of every conceivable product from breakfast food to automobiles. This gigantic business calls for definite rules to be applied in the making of these commercial posters, which are silent, forceful, and dynamic salesmen. Errors in artistry and psychology are costly and so advertisers generally agree on basic fundamental principles of poster design to secure effectiveness and safety in the finished product.

Art teachers may draw a wealth of information from the study of these successful posters as the same principles may be applied to school and educational posters, for the primary aim of all posters is to sell an idea quickly, forcefully, and simply.

From a study of various kinds of posters, commercial and educational, the following conclusions have been drawn:

That a poster is the bearer of a short, terse, and convincing message, graphically portrayed in simple bold areas of color and form pleasing to the eye.

That in any poster the idea is of primary importance and that this idea should be sold in a complete and forceful manner by simple illustration and appropriate lettering.

The ideal poster is without words but when words are used they should be as few as possible.

The choice of lettering is important and it should be in harmony with the subject. For example, when advertising trucks a bold type of lettering should be employed, whereas a fine, more feminine type would be used for a lingerie ad.

The power of all posters lies in flash appeal and therefore they must not be dependent upon detail. Effectiveness is achieved by simplicity.

The success or failure of many posters depends upon the choice of color. Therefore, care should be exercised and much thought given to this part of poster making. Strong contrasts are necessary and a well-balanced color harmony.

One of the simplest and quickest methods of arousing interest in an art class is to give the pupils a subject or a variety of subjects from which to choose and tell them to make posters. Then note the eagerness with which they go to work. There are certain times of the school year when the pupils seem to need a stimulus. This is an excellent time to put on a poster contest. At our school we tend to be at a rather low ebb after the holidays. At this time we begin planning our annual spring program and it takes no more than a suggestion from the teacher to arouse interest in making advertising posters for this event.

Book week which comes in the fall is a good time to start making posters. We place a poster in the library and one in each school building, allowing the best poster to be used in the library, chosen by the children, of course, and the children from each building compete to see which ones shall be placed in the high school, oral, and manual departments. Voting is almost as much fun as making the posters.

For our spring program poster contest a committee, composed of faculty members, judges the posters, and simple prizes are awarded to the pupils submitting the three best. The awards are presented by our superintendent during chapel period. Usually we have about 10 or 12 entries.

There are many contests outside of school which the children may enter if they wish, some of which are commercial and some of a civic nature. The boys and girls like the latter better. Each year we submit a number of entries for the contest sponsored by the American Legion Auxiliary for Poppy Day posters. The boys are especially interested in this contest and begin to talk about it and plan their posters before the holidays although we do not receive our instructions until March.

The contests I have mentioned are those in which the older pupils participate, but the children from the first grade up love to make posters about good health, safety, conservation, and innumerable other subjects. Not all of the posters we turn out are good posters, but each is the expression of some child's thought, and with its completion the child has gained much experience in the use of color, the handling of one or more mediums and the use of all the fundamental art principles.

I have brought with me a set of six stencils which were made by a Junior boy and were used by him in the making of the Poppy Day

poster which received first place in this year's contest. With it I also brought the finished poster and two others made from the same stencil. Each of the three posters were made on a differently colored background and the spatter ink used for each stencil was a different color from that used on the original poster. One advantage of the stenciled poster is that many copies may be made from the same set of stencils and also a variety of mediums may be employed. These posters were made with a spatter gun and ink but would have been equally effective in other mediums.

I have also brought posters made entirely of cut paper, one in show-card color, and some which are a combination of both. Another method by which posters may be made in quantity is by the use of block prints.

Poster making is fun, it also makes the child think. It enriches his experience and gives him practical knowledge of many phases of art work.

In closing, let me urge that we as art teachers, be not too critical of the finished product. Allow me to repeat that the idea is of primary importance. All children cannot be artists but all may be taught to be good workmen. If a child cannot complete a successful poster of his own, perhaps he may find joy in helping a classmate or a brother or sister. Another plan which I have found to be successful is to allow all of the class to participate in a poster project. One may do the drawing, others cut the paper, while someone else does the pasting. Finishing touches with the brush may be added by the more expert members of the class. Each child will feel that he has a part and will derive much satisfaction therefrom.

In the studio at the Wisconsin school we have hanging on the wall a card which reads:

I AM THE POSTER

I am what I am because the leaping eye cannot deny me.
I know not doubt.
I stammer not, nor quibble.
I am the child of originality born of imperious need.
I speak with a voice of brass but my harvest is of gold.
I follow the trail of tomorrow rather than that of today.
I am the poster.

SECTION FOR DEAF TEACHERS

Leader: G. C. Farquhar, Missouri School.

Paper: Socialized Mathematics for the Ninth Grade, David Mudgett, Illinois School.

Paper: The Teaching of Mathematics, Byron B. Burnes, California School.

SOCIALIZED MATHEMATICS FOR THE NINTH GRADE

(DAVID MUDGETT, Illinois School)

Since our ninth grade is the last year in school for the majority of our graduates, the mathematics course for that year should be as practical as we can make it. The pupils are in a mood to learn all they can about the problems of living which they will soon have to meet.

None of the textbooks I have seen meets this need. Using a suitable ninth-grade mathematics textbook for the sake of its review of arith-

metrical processes and the presentation of a few new tools, we can vitalize the course and meet the needs of our graduates by adding to it a comprehensive study of the problems of daily living.

Every teacher of mathematics does this to a greater or lesser extent. My only contribution is to suggest a logical outline for such a course to prevent its becoming a haphazard skipping from one topic to another.

I have always put stress on keeping personal accounts and budgeting from the seventh grade up. In the ninth grade I use this budget form as an outline for the year's work. Each item can be expanded just as much as the teacher wishes. A few days or a whole month could be used for each item, with arithmetic drills once or twice a week, using a textbook or arithmetic workbooks.

The wise management of money involves not only spending and saving, but also making wise and economical purchases. So this course is not confined to mathematics, but takes in the field of consumer education. The teacher with a background of the consumer movement and a knowledge of modern economics is best equipped for this course. Materials can be gathered from many sources, a few of which are listed in the outline below. As some of the consumer agencies have been accused of being Communist-inspired, it is necessary to be cautious in the selection of materials. The Government publications are our best source. The scope of the course is limited only by the teacher's ingenuity.

By proper timing, most of the items in this outline can be correlated with similar work in many other departments in the school. The instructors of all the vocational classes, the vocational principal, the teachers of hygiene, science, reading, language, civics, physical education, art and domestic science, the school doctor, dietitian, matron, and engineer can all contribute valuable lectures and demonstrations and conduct tours. We are more fortunate than the public schools in having men and women skilled in many fields of activity in our schools, but not enough use of their skill is made in the classrooms. The literary societies can use many of the topics here discussed for their debates. Field trips will add interest to the work.

OUTLINE OF A COURSE IN PROBLEMS OF LIVING FOR THE NINTH-GRADE MATHEMATICS CLASS

1. INTRODUCTION

- (a) Budgets for different levels of income.
- (b) Budgets for single persons and for families of different sizes.
- (c) Keeping personal and family accounts.
- (d) Checking accounts; sending and carrying money.
- (e) Average incomes of different occupations.
- (f) Increasing income by wise spending and less waste.

Materials.—A family budget account book purchasable at any book store. A supply of blank checks, deposit books, monthly balance sheets, and other forms obtainable for the asking from your bank. Several pamphlets such as "Money Management for Households," distributed by Household Finance Corporation, 919 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, and "The Seven Lecture Study Course," by the Foundation for Consumer Education, 510 West Sixth Street, Los Angeles, Calif. The chapters on budgeting and keeping accounts in the arithmetic textbook you use. The daily papers for clippings on the cost of living. Old postal and express money orders and traveler's checks.

2. FOOD

(a) Food value buying:

- (1) Selection on a cost basis (shopping—sales).
- (2) Selection on a basis of quality (labeling).
- (3) Selection on a basis of quantity.
- (4) Seasonal selection of foods.
- (5) Selection on the energy value basis.

(b) Estimating the cost of single meals.

(c) Weights and measures:

- (1) Measures used in cooking.
- (2) Weights per bushel.
- (3) The short-weight racket.

(d) Gardening and the preservation of foods.

Materials.—Cooperation with the domestic science department and the hygiene classes. A visit to a store. Study of food advertisements in the daily papers. Examples of grade labeling on cans. A visit to a farm. Visit the school's own food storage rooms. A lecture on calories by the school dietician. The Chicago Daily News Yearbook (\$1) for weights per bushel. Problems on buying food in quantity from arithmetic textbooks. Articles on short-weights in Reader's Digest and other magazines.

3. SHELTER

(a) Rent values in your community.

(b) Owning versus renting.

(c) Different methods of buying a home:

- (1) The F. H. A. method.
- (2) The building-and-loan method.
- (3) The old short-term mortgage method.
- (4) Buying an old house.

(d) Fire insurance.

Materials.—Have pupils investigate rent levels and values in their own communities. After classroom preparation, have a debate on the subject of renting or owning a home. Visit a new house under construction. Take a walk along a street and estimate the value of the houses you see, especially the cost to build the new ones. Get literature from a building-and-loan association. Sample policies from a fire insurance company. Get sample rates per \$100 for fire insurance on different houses nearby and find out why they differ. The school engineer or the woodworking instructor can help out here.

4. UTILITIES

(a) Reading meters and computing bills.

(b) Comparison of fuel costs for different types of home heating.

(c) Comparison of costs of gas, electricity, coal, kerosene, and bottled gas for cooking and water heating.

(d) Ice and electric refrigerators.

Materials.—Read actual meters. Bring utility bills to the class. Visit homes of teachers having different types of heating and ask questions about the costs. Government publications on heating and utilities. Find cost of utilities in your school.

5. HOME FURNISHINGS AND FURNITURE

(a) Price—quality relationships in furniture and furnishings.

(b) Advertisements and seasonal sales—high-pressure salesmanship.

(c) Installment versus cash buying:

- (1) Discounts for cash.
- (2) Dangers of installment buying.
- (3) Computing actual interest rate paid on installment purchases.
- (4) What to do if you cannot meet an installment payment.

Materials.—Study furniture used in the school. Ask the woodworking instructor to lecture on quality in furniture. Study advertisements. Bring to the

class sample conditional sales contracts, "renting," time-payment contracts, and chattel-mortgage contracts. Class work in different methods of computing time payments. Another good topic for a debate. Might find a good lecturer around the school who can talk on wise buying of rugs, draperies, furniture, bedding, etc. Time it with interior decorating in the art classes.

6. CLOTHING

- (a) Sales and off-season buying.
- (b) Charge accounts and installment buying of clothing.
- (c) Tests for and comparison of wool, linen, silk, rayon, cotton, nylon, and furs.

Materials.—Visit a clothing factory if one is near by. Study advertisements, especially for end-of-season sales. Have the instructor in clothing bring samples of different materials to class and if possible, make tests on part-wool fabrics. Discuss the wisdom of buying expensive clothing. Ask the girls to discuss the comparative merits of nylon and silk stockings and the cost of making a dress as compared with buying one ready-made. Have the boys count the number of launderies they get out of new shirts of different makes before they show signs of wear.

7. TRANSPORTATION

- (a) Cost of owning an automobile:
 - (1) Driven a low mileage per year.
 - (2) Driven a high mileage per year.
 - (3) Kept for 1, 3, and 5 years.
- (b) Comparative costs per mile by auto, train, bus, streetcar, and airplane.
- (c) Auto insurance.
- (d) Travel insurance (note escape clause, excluding deaf).
- (e) Railroad time tables and standard time.

Materials.—Get actual costs of new cars and trade-in values of used cars from an auto dealer or the newspaper advertisements. Compute costs per mile by train, bus, and airplane by dividing fares by mileage between towns. Study railroad timetables. Study time zones on a globe and look up time references in news dispatches. Samples of auto insurance policies.

8. HEALTH

- (a) Cost of medical care and hospitalization.
- (b) Group hospital insurance.
- (c) Sick and accident insurance.
- (d) Prepaid medical care.
- (e) Dentifrices and patent medicines.
- (f) The Pure Food and Drugs Act.

Materials.—Get facts on hospital insurance and prepaid medical care in large cities which have them. Outside reading of or extracts from such books as *Skin Deep*, *100,000,000 Guinea Pigs*, and *Guinea Pigs No More*. Pamphlets on the Pure Food and Drugs Act and notices of judgment from the United States Department of Agriculture and the Federal Trade Commission. Excellent pamphlets from the American Medical Association and the American Dental Association, both of Chicago. Cooperate with the hygiene teacher. Might get the school doctor or nurse to lecture on cost of medical care or the danger of self-medication with patent medicines. Why not get up a course in first aid taught by an instructor from the Red Cross?

9. SAVINGS

- (a) Bank savings accounts.
- (b) Building and loan associations.
- (c) United States Savings stamps and Defense bonds.
- (d) Stocks and bonds and other investments.
- (e) Life insurance.
- (f) Chain letters, gold bricks, cemetery lot rackets, etc.

Materials.—Blank forms used by banks, pass books, etc. Building and loan association literature. Actual savings stamps and bonds. Articles in Reader's Digest on the cemetery lot racket and other rackets. Pamphlets from the Na-

tional Better Business Bureau, Inc., Chrysler Building, New York, N. Y. Specimen life-insurance policies. The Frat, publication of the N. F. S. D. Get rates for different ages on different types of policies from a friendly insurance agent. Might get an agent to make an impartial lecture on different types of policies.

10. RECREATION

- (a) The wise choice of a recreation or hobby.
- (b) Costs of various recreations.
- (c) How to keep score for all common sports.
- (d) Cost of vacation trips.
- (e) Games of chance, slot machines, raffles, etc.

Materials.—Have pupils interested in different hobbies, and describe them and the cost to the class. Get score books and sheets and keep score for baseball, football, tennis, table tennis, bowling, etc. Estimate actual cost of various vacation trips such as a trip to a fishing cabin in Wisconsin, an auto tour of the national parks in the West, and a visit to New York City. Toss a coin 100 times to demonstrate the law of averages. Try to get hold of a slot machine or punch board and show how much it takes in and how much it pays out. Compute the odds and percentage of the take given out in a raffle or lottery.

11. TAXES, UNION DUES, AND SOCIAL SECURITY

- (a) Property personal property, sales and income taxes.
- (b) Hidden taxes that we pay.
- (c) Social security:
 - (1) Old-age pensions.
 - (2) Unemployment insurance.
 - (3) Workmen's compensation.
 - (4) W. P. A. and C. C. C.
 - (5) Unions.

12. Vocational mathematics in cooperation with the instructors in the various vocational classes.

THE TEACHING OF MATHEMATICS

(BYRON B. BURNES, California School)

The teaching of mathematics—which in our schools for the deaf is confined mostly to the teaching of arithmetic and algebra—is a subject too vast to be covered in the time available at this convention or in a single paper. It will not be possible here to consider the great number of skills which the pupil must master or the technique of teaching the many phases of the subject. We can only consider some of the general aspects of the entire subject with the hope that some thoughts may present themselves which teachers may pursue further as they have time and opportunity. Unlike teachers of language, teachers of mathematics in schools for the deaf meet a great many of the same problems which confront teachers in the public schools. Therefore, the teachers of the deaf have access to unlimited sources of material on theories of teaching mathematics, produced in the public-school field, most of which they will find readily adaptable to their own work.

The equipment of the teacher.—Among the fundamental elements in successful teaching are the teacher's own preparation, personality, and general qualifications. A generation ago a college graduate was considered qualified to teach mathematics, but in this day the teacher's general enthusiasm, his personal characteristics, his knowledge of content and method, successful experience, and a number of other traits are held to be equally important. The college degree is still

important, however. The teacher should have a thorough knowledge of sound educational methods as well as of subject matter. There have been many outstanding teachers without college degrees who entered the profession without previous training and attained distinction through their own efforts and inherent skill. They have received—and deserved—the highest tributes of the profession, but we cannot say that these teachers would not have achieved even greater success had they possessed thorough professional training. The teacher of algebra should be thoroughly familiar with arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and trigonometry. Even a course in calculus would be helpful. The teacher who has had college algebra and theory of equations will be a better teacher of high-school algebra than one who has not had this training. The teacher who has taken analytic geometry will have a broader and more valuable point of view in teaching graphical work in any other elementary mathematics subject. It is faulty thinking to assume that such knowledge of “higher mathematics” is not necessary because these subjects are not included in the curricula of our schools. The teacher who has had these courses finds cause almost each day to appreciate the wider outlook they have given him. Furthermore, the teacher who has taken such courses stands the better chance for advancement, since the tendency among increasing numbers of our schools is to base their judgment of teacher qualifications on standards set by the public-school system, which, in many places, has rigid requirements with respect to professional preparation.

The course of study.—Unfortunately, mathematics does not receive the attention it should receive in many of our schools. It is not given its rightful place of importance in the curriculum. It is overshadowed by the constant stress on language teaching. At one of our conventions a few years ago the principal of the Iowa school remarked that in 15 volumes of the American Annals of the Deaf, he had found but 7 articles on the teaching of arithmetic, which he considered as reflecting lack of sufficient professional interest in the subject. While I have made no special search, I have never seen a detailed course of study in use in any of our schools. Most schools have “outlines,” which they consider a “course of study.” These outlines, some of which are of ancient origin, give the teacher practically nothing to guide his instruction.

The course in arithmetic and algebra should tell not only what to teach, but also how to teach. It should set forth the general policies or teaching methods to be used, in addition to the amount of material to be covered within a given period of time. In recommending that the course of study prescribe definite methods, I do not mean that successful teachers should be given no leeway in the matter of technique, but I do maintain that a general teaching plan should be adopted and enforced all through the course. This would result in less confusion for the pupils, greater economy of time, and less “reteaching” for the teacher. It would enable each teacher to know what the pupils had acquired from previous teachers, thus avoiding unnecessary repetition. A simple example of the economy which can result from uniformity of method can be seen in the different methods in use for finding the least common multiple. Suppose one teacher uses the old “formal” method, as follows:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 2) \quad 12 \quad 16 \quad 18 \\
 \hline
 2) \quad 6 \quad 8 \quad 9 \\
 \hline
 2) \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 9 \\
 \hline
 3) \quad 3 \quad 2 \quad 9 \\
 \hline
 1 \quad 2 \quad 3
 \end{array}$$

$$L. C. M. = 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 2 \times 3 = 144$$

Another teacher may instruct his pupils by use of the "factor" method, thus:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 12 = 2 \times 2 \times 3 \\
 16 = 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 \\
 18 = 2 \times 3 \times 3
 \end{array}$$

$$L. C. M. = 2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 2 \times 2 \times 3 = 144$$

A third teacher may simplify things by merely taking the largest of these three numbers and multiplying it by successive integers until a number is found which is a multiple of all three. Each of these methods may have its worthy qualities—although there is doubt as to the first one—but when a class has been instructed by one teacher to use one method and by another teacher to use another method, the result is confusion in the child's mind. He does not see that these different tricks lead to a common end. Moreover, if he has mastered one method, it is unnecessary, even unprofitable, for him to go through the procedure of acquiring new habits necessitated by learning another system. It is to avoid such contingencies as this that the schools should prepare a detailed course, remembering, of course, that it must permit of a certain amount of flexibility. A course of study in arithmetic cannot be compiled overnight, by a single hard-working teacher. It should be assembled by all teachers who have to do with the subject, on the basis of their teaching experience and the needs of the school. It should be adopted only after it has shown by successful use in the classrooms that it will serve satisfactorily in all its details. Teachers will render a great service to their schools if they will make efforts to prepare detailed courses of study.

The "meaning" theory.—The theories of arithmetic instruction have been defined as (1) the drill theory, (2) the incidental-learning theory, and (3) the "meaning" theory. In the early days the drill theory dominated instruction in mathematics. Pupils learned arithmetic by memorizing rules, and the chief objective was skill in computation. They were required to memorize the basic combinations by repeated drill and recitation. An old teacher once told me that in geometry she had been required to memorize not only all the propositions and theorems and proofs, but also the number of the page on which each occurred. In algebra even in our own generation we have been required to memorize rules. There is something of a feeling of triumph in being able to recite, "The square of the sum of two numbers is equal to the square of the first, plus twice the product of the first and the second, plus the square of the second," but such recitation is unnecessary, and few of our pupils know what the rule means even after they have memorized it. Under the drill theory, the pupil blindly follows directions. He receives no encouragement in thinking.

The incidental-learning theory reasons that the pupil learns best in life-like situations, or incidentally in connection with activities in

which some arithmetic skill is necessary. This is the theory of the "progressive" educators. It is glorified in the "project method" of instruction. It requires an extensive activity program, but it fails in that no activity program can be devised which will provide the experience necessary to acquisition of all the essential arithmetic skills. It makes arithmetic skill a means to an end, rather than the end, itself, and it makes interest in arithmetic subordinate to interest in the activity.

The "meaning" theory, so termed by William A. Brownell and prescribed by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, stresses understanding and meaning. It employs drill and it recognizes the value of incidental learning, but it places understanding foremost. To quote Brownell, it "makes arithmetic less a challenge to the pupil's memory and more a challenge to his intelligence." The whole plan of our arithmetic teaching should be governed by the theory that pupils must understand the meaning of each step they take. Each new step is presented in its relationship to a previous step, which is already understood by the pupils.

Children must know the meaning of numbers before they are taught to use them. Only in this way will they develop the correct mathematical concepts. Only by this means will they acquire the ability to do quantitative thinking. As each new topic is introduced to the pupil, it is not enough merely to demonstrate to the pupil how to perform the required operation. Before the operation is even begun, the pupil should be made acquainted with the uses of the operation, and with the reasons for its use. He should be made to see clearly its relation to some operation previously learned.

Teaching meaningful arithmetic is no easy task. It requires skill and ingenuity on the part of the teacher. Topics must be presented in the order of their difficulty, with the easier ones coming first. The old methods of teaching a whole phase—such as fractions—in a single "block" is being discarded because it fails to provide for understanding on the part of the pupil. Topics are being presented in relation to other topics, and developed gradually through the whole course. It is the teacher's responsibility to make sure that the pupils understand. This requires careful planning, judicious guidance, and constant checking of each individual's progress. With proper development of understanding and reasoning, the pupil will be led to discover new phases on his own account.

The alert teacher will find evidence each day of some pupil's failure to grasp the meaning of some phase of arithmetic. The common criticism we hear is that the pupils "cannot apply" what they have learned. The reason for their inability to apply operations in solving problems is that they have not been made acquainted with the meaning of the operations. They have failed to grasp the concept of numbers.

In all our teaching we should ask ourselves if the pupil understands, or if he merely strives to follow our instructions. The lack of understanding among pupils sometimes is unbelievable, and often is overlooked by the teacher. I have seen pupils who had learned all the fundamental operations with fractions, yet it was clear that they did not know what the fractions actually meant. They did not know what the fraction $\frac{3}{4}$ meant. To them it was merely a symbol

in arithmetic. By showing the pupils actual quantities or objects illustrating fractions under as many conditions as they can possibly provide, teachers will develop in their pupils more meaningful concepts. How many of our pupils know the reason for inverting the divisor in division of fractions, or for moving the decimal point in division of decimals? In solving a verbal problem, if the pupil asks, "Shall I divide?" or "Shall I subtract?" he betrays the fact that he has never acquired an understanding of these operations. When a pupil thinks multiplication of fractions should produce larger fractions, he reveals lack of understanding.

From the time the pupil has his first introduction to numbers until completion of the course, he should be taught the meaning of all operations. I may be guilty of some exaggeration, but I believe there are pupils who actually do not associate such a simple expression as $3+2=5$ with real quantities, for the reason that the expression has not been introduced at the beginning in association with real quantities.

Coordination of instruction.—In our vocational departments we have an excellent opportunity for meaningful teaching of arithmetic of which many teachers do not take sufficient advantage. Vocational teachers have had occasion time without number to bemoan the lack of arithmetic knowledge among their pupils. Investigation of such complaints usually reveals a number of reasons for this inadequacy. Unacquainted with the work done in the academic department, the vocational teacher not infrequently expects more of the pupil than that pupil is able to do. Likewise, the academic teacher, unfamiliar with processes used in industrial arithmetic, has not taught the pupil methods employed in the vocational department. For example, a pupil may be thoroughly familiar with all the arithmetic processes used in cutting quantities of paper in the printing shop, but he finds that the instructor of printing uses a figuring "short cut" which his arithmetic teacher has never revealed, and which he does not understand. A little cooperation between the teachers in the two departments would avoid the conflicts resulting from such incidents.

Most pupils in the advanced grades possess all the skills necessary in computing board measure, but few of them understand the methods used by vocational teachers, or by lumbermen, because they are not "textbook" methods. The arithmetic teacher should make himself familiar with such variations between the academic and the vocational phases of the subject, and the vocational teacher should acquaint himself with what each pupil has acquired in the arithmetic class.

On occasions I have had vocational teachers complain of the feeble demonstrations of arithmetic ability displayed by certain pupils. I have asked these teachers to keep a record of each pupil's apparent shortcomings, with a view to working with the vocational teacher in improving the pupil's skill, but I have yet to receive such details from a teacher. It seems to me here is where we neglect a golden opportunity in our teaching of arithmetic. Arithmetic teachers should not be held entirely responsible for training in industrial mathematics, however, for vocational teachers should—and many do—shoulder a portion of the load. Where can a pupil learn better to compute recipe proportions than in the domestic science class?

Where can he learn about the cubic contents of a box better than in the shop where he can make the box? The important thing is that means should be provided whereby teachers in the various departments might cooperate in the instruction of the pupils at the logical intervals in the pupils' learning experiences.

Business and social arithmetic.—Modern instruction in arithmetic includes numerous topics in business and social uses of arithmetic. These phases came in with the wave of progressive education and "consumer education" a few years ago and developed into something of a fad. Some of the more fanciful elements already have been discarded, but we have come to realize the importance of the more practical features in our educational scheme. There is some question, however, as to whether these subjects should be taught as a phase of arithmetic or as part of a separate course in business methods, where such a course is included in the curriculum. It seems to me the mathematics of business can be more readily taught in conjunction with other phases of a course in business methods, for this department can make better use of business forms and other such materials of instruction pertaining to the course. At any rate, the pupil should be provided with adequate instruction in such topics as banking, credit, investments, discounts, bills and receipts, interest, budgets, insurance, installment buying, borrowing, travel expenses, taxation, and so forth. Instruction in these phases of mathematics—if it is mathematics—should include actual experience; visits to banks and business establishments, and projects based on these experiences. It is because so many activities are involved that I say such instruction properly belongs in a department of its own.

While these topics are of great importance, it is possible that we are tempted on occasions to stress some of them too heavily. The average deaf person does not have very extensive business connections. Occasions when he must compute interest or taxes, or such, are rare. He may pay taxes, but how often will he be called upon to perform actual computation in connection with tax payments? He pays what he is assessed. In banking, the only mathematical skill most of our pupils will need is in keeping records on check stubs. The pupil may borrow money at some time in the future, but he will pay interest as computed by the bank, or by a loan concern. He may take out insurance, but he pays the premium determined by the insurance firm. We attach great importance to budgeting, but the average person does not bother to make up a budget, even if he should. Instruction in these topics, therefore, should be chiefly informational, rather than computational, which again indicates that it is not a logical phase of mathematical instruction.

Individual differences.—It is unlikely that any teacher has ever enjoyed the privilege of instructing a class of pupils all of whom were so similar in ability and attainment that they were able to progress at the same rate. Several years ago I had a class in algebra which, as a whole, was a good class. It was a large class, however, and I was continually beset by countless difficulties in trying to keep the pupils together. One pupil possessed extraordinary mathematical ability. She would complete her assignments and mark time while waiting for

the others to catch up. The member at the other extreme was continually lagging behind. From time to time one pupil or another would miss a day, or a week, due to illness. I finally decided to install a system of individualized instruction, for which I devised a sort of modification of the "contract" method. The results were so pleasing that I have used this system ever since. Each pupil in algebra advances at his own rate, and he covers each step thoroughly. Under this system I have found that the brightest pupils complete the course within 1 year; those of average ability require more than a year and a half; while the laggards run on into the third year.

Most of my pupils who take the Gallaudet College entrance examinations do so at the end of their junior year. It usually happens that those who are unable to complete the algebra course in less than 2 years likewise do not prove able to meet the college requirements in other subjects. I would recommend the individual system to all teachers charged with the instruction of a large class. It is of definite advantage in that it keeps the superior pupil busy and at the same time prevents retardation of the work of the class by one or two slower pupils. The pupil who is absent at intervals during the year does not lose anything by having to slur over portions of the work in order to stay with the class. The system is not without its disadvantages, however. The lazy pupil, left to his own resources, is inclined to neglect his assignments. Moreover, the bright pupil who completes the course early suddenly finds himself with nothing to do, and if the school provides no mathematics beyond elementary algebra, the teacher's resources are taxed in providing worth-while activity for this pupil. Such pupil might attempt more advanced work in mathematics, but it has been my experience that while it is comparatively easy to keep several members of a class occupied at different stages of an algebra course, it is extremely difficult to have one or two pupils taking advanced algebra, or geometry, or general mathematics, while others are engaged in algebra. Such pupils should not be confined to a rigid schedule. Something else should be provided for them outside the mathematics class.

The textbook.—For reasons of economy, many of our schools are using textbooks which have been in use for a generation or more. For the good of the pupils and for the sake of more successful teaching, the schools should install modern texts. The principles of teaching have changed greatly within the last few years. Psychological studies of children and of teaching procedures have resulted in a realignment of the topics of arithmetic and algebra, and books have been revised accordingly. There are many modern books available, all of which have their merits. They present the steps of arithmetic learning in their logical sequence, and they are more interesting to the pupils. Textbooks now come in series, arranged according to grades, providing a uniform system throughout the course. Some such series should be adopted. We shall hear the argument, of course, that the textbook is only an auxiliary tool to the skilled teacher, and is relatively unimportant. It is true that the good teacher need not depend upon a definite text, but how many teachers, in the absence of a detailed course of study, can satisfactorily arrange their teaching material without a textbook?

In algebra, adoption of a modern text is essentially important. Not only do the new books in algebra provide a more logical presentation of the subject, but they also contain more meaningful problems, and they are more interesting to the pupils. Furthermore, they include vital phases of algebra which were omitted from the older books. They prepare the pupil more thoroughly for the study of higher mathematics.

Some years ago Gallaudet College recommended a certain algebra text which was religiously adopted in almost all our schools. It was a wonderful book, to be sure, and it is quite likely that most of us here today got our start in algebra from that book. The college entrance examinations consisted of problems similar to those in the textbook recommended, and preparing pupils for college was merely a matter of drilling in the text. Within recent years the college has adopted a standardized form of entrance examinations. It is based on the modern theories of teaching algebra, and it contains the types of problems found in modern texts. Incidentally, it is a distinct improvement over the old style examinations. The college no longer recommends a specific algebra text, but many of our schools still use the old book, with which the supply rooms were stocked years ago. Pupils drilled in the old text simply are not prepared for the new type examinations, and this fact, more than faulty teaching or faulty learning, accounts for many recent failures in algebra. For example, graphs are recognized today as of fundamental importance in developing the functional concept in mathematics. They appear early in arithmetic, and they are an essential part of modern instruction in algebra. They appear in the new examinations. The old algebra text, however, confines graphs to the appendix. In the old texts our algebra course, recommended by Gallaudet College, ended at the beginning of quadratic equations. Such equations began to appear in the college entrance examinations and algebra teachers emitted a resounding wail. In modern teaching, and in modern texts, quadratic equations come early in the course, at their logical place. Teachers who are interested in more effective instruction, as well as in preparing pupils for college, should insist on modern textbooks.

Conclusion.—In conclusion, the successful teaching of mathematics depends upon hard work on the part of the teacher and of the pupil. Teachers must study each individual pupil. They must know all the weaknesses, the shortcomings, and the strong points of each child. They must instill in the pupil the necessary habits of working on his own account. Hard work and incessant attention to detail are essential to successful teaching and successful learning, just as they are essential to a successful career in any other walk of life.

(On the conclusion of the reading of the paper by Mr. Burnes, the section voted appreciation of the arrangements made by Mr. Charles B. Grow, vocational principal in the Kentucky School, for interpreting the various parts of the convention program.)

GENERAL BUSINESS SESSION, THURSDAY MORNING, JUNE 26

The general business session of the convention of American Instructors of the Deaf convened in the auditorium of the Advanced School Building, at 11 a. m., Dr. Ignatius Bjorlee presiding.

Dr. BJORLEE. At this time we are particularly sorry that our president, Mr. Stevenson, cannot be with us, and I know there is nothing that would have given him more pleasure than to be here. Some time ago he wrote and asked me if I would preside over the business session, and as that was also the wish of our vice president, Dr. Settles, I have accepted and I trust you will bear with me throughout these deliberations.

At this time Dr. Settles has a little matter to bring before you.

Dr. SETTLES. I would like Mr. and Mrs. Ingle to come to the platform, please. [Mr. and Mrs. Ingle respond.]

Ever since 2 years ago, when we knew that the convention was going to be held in Fulton, Mo., we have all been very anxious to get here and see what the hospitality of the Kingdom of Callaway and Fulton was. We arrived last Monday, and we have been delightfully entertained. We realize that it takes a tremendous amount of work and a lot of effort to prepare for a convention of this kind and we appreciate the splendid effort and work that Superintendent and Mrs. Ingle and their efficient staff have done.

The food has been excellent. It has held up the tradition of the Kingdom of Callaway County food. The weather has been the best that we could expect. As Mark Twain, a former Missourian and famous writer, said, "Everybody talks about the weather but nobody does anything about it."

We have had a very splendid time here, and we know we are going to continue to have one tonight and tomorrow.

Superintendent and Mrs. Ingle, on behalf of the members of this convention, because of our high esteem of you, and in appreciation of the splendid time we have had here this week and the splendid entertainment, we want to present you this table. When the committee finished up, it had left over a sum of money, and when the chairman of the committee came to give it to me, I said I thought it was in appreciation of my hard work. So now, I turn this money in this envelope over to Mrs. Ingle and she can select whatever she wishes. [Applause.]

Mr. INGLE. Mr. Chairman and friends, I want to tell you all the success that we might have in our meeting here is not due to me. I think you will agree with me that all of our people here, our teachers, and others who have helped, are really responsible for any success we may have in this meeting. And to them, I want to express my thanks publicly here. I cannot begin to thank you for that expression you have made this morning. Thank you. [Applause.]

Mrs. INGLE. Sometime ago an occasion arose when Mr. Ingle thought it might be a good idea for me to say a few words before an audience, and that was his error, because he knows I cannot say a few words, ever. However, I tried, but when I got home he said, "It looks to me

as if anyone who has as much practice in talking as you have could have done better than that. You were simply terrible." So, I made up my mind that after that I would confine my speech making to the home. However, this morning I am very, very happy to have the opportunity to tell you how very happy we have been, and what a privilege we feel it is to have you with us. I was afraid I was going to have to depend on Mr. Ingle and other people who have welcomed you to express that for me, too, but we have looked forward to it for a long time and this is one time when I can truly say that realization has been greater than anticipation.

Now, I too, want to thank you for this table. I think it is lovely, and I will always think of the old friends and the new that I met here this time. Thank you. [Applause.]

Dr. BJORLEE. We will now listen to the treasurer's report.

Mr. O. W. Underhill's report was read by Mr. Tobias Brill, chairman of the auditing committee.

TREASURER'S REPORT

(ODIE W. UNDERHILL, treasurer of the convention)

Jamestown, Ohio, June 14, 1941.

THE AUDITING COMMITTEE OF THE CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF.

GENTLEMEN: We have made an audit of the books and records of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf for the 2 years ending May 31, 1941.

On exhibit A you will find a statement of income and expenses for this period. The total income of the period was \$2,484.88 and exceeded the expenses of \$1,731.24 by the amount of \$753.64. The excess of income over expenses of \$753.64 was \$104.10 greater than in the 2 years immediately preceeding.

The comparative statements of resources as of close of business on May 31, 1941, and May 31, 1939, as reflected in exhibit B of this report discloses a healthy condition of your association.

The deposits in the First National Bank of Morganton, N. C., have increased substantially. The cash in savings account, checking account, and on hand amounted to \$2,459.85 from which was deducted \$24.30 for two small bills unpaid on May 31, 1941, but paid before June 6, 1941, leaving the net resources of \$2,435.55. The net resources 2 years prior amounted to \$1,681.91, so we find the increase in the period amounted to \$753.64, which is the exact amount of net income for the accounting period.

The records reflect conscientious work and painstaking care on the part of your treasurer and his assistants as well as a businesslike administration by your president.

We submit the statements attached hereto and comments as presenting the true condition of the finances of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf as of the close of business on May 31, 1941.

C. WALTER KLEIST,
Public Accountant.

EXHIBIT A.—The Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf*Income and expenses for 2-year period ended May 31, 1941***INCOME**

Registration fees at Berkeley convention.....	\$361.00
Membership fees for 1939.....	100.00
Membership fees for 1940.....	732.00
Membership fees for 1941.....	968.00
Interest on savings account.....	42.11
Received from Elwood A. Stevenson, balance from fund raised for charges for board, lodging, and from other sources.....	281.77
Total income.....	2,484.88

EXPENSES

Reporting Berkeley convention proceedings.....	185.00
Compiling Berkeley convention proceedings.....	100.00
Badges for Berkeley convention.....	47.99
Convention bulletins.....	611.51
Vocational bulletins.....	279.21
Paper stock.....	7.52
Printing.....	42.15
Committee chairmen expenses, telegrams and minor convention expenses	134.05
Office help.....	100.00
Postage and supplies.....	163.56
Bank service charges.....	2.25
Auditor fee.....	48.00
Treasurer's bond.....	10.00
Total expenses.....	1,731.24

Increase of income over expenses for period.....	753.64
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EXHIBIT B.—The Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf—comparative statements of resources as of close of business May 31, 1941, and May 31, 1939

Items	1941	1939	Increase
Bank savings account.....	\$1,076.94	\$1,034.83	\$42.11
Bank checking account.....	1,106.69	651.00	455.69
Canadian currency on hand.....		4.00	-4.00
Checks on hand.....	276.22	98.01	178.21
Total.....	2,459.85	1,787.84	672.01
Less: Unpaid bills as per memorandum below.....	24.30	105.93	-81.63
Net resources.....	2,435.55	1,681.91	753.64

MEMORANDUM, UNPAID BILLS AS OF CLOSE OF BUSINESS MAY 31, 1941, BUT PAID BEFORE JUNE 6, 1941

Dr. C. J. Settles, expense account.....	\$19.35
O. W. Underhill, for postage.....	4.95
Total.....	24.30

Mr. BRILL. I would like to stress one sentence in particular from the comment of the public accountant. "The records reflect conscientious work and painstaking care on the part of your treasurer and his assistants as well as a business-like administration by your President. [Applause.]

Dr. BJORLEE. You have heard the report of the auditing committee on the treasurer's report. What is your pleasure? I would like to add that the report has been gone over thoroughly by a certified public

accountant and Mr. Brill has in his hand the report which was submitted by that accountant.

Dr. HALL. I move it be accepted with thanks and filed in the records. (The motion was seconded by Mr. Walker, put and carried.)

Dr. BJORLEE. Dr. Brown, may we have the report of the resolutions committee?

Dr. A. L. Brown (reads report of resolutions committee):

REPORT OF RESOLUTIONS COMMITTEE

Being mindful of the unlimited time and endless labor required to perfect such an excellent convention program as we have just completed, be it

Resolved, That we extend our thanks to Dr. Clarence J. Settles and Mr. Truman L. Ingle for preparing this program which included such splendid speakers, demonstrations, and exhibits. We wish to express our appreciation to all who took part.

That we extend our thanks to Mr. and Mrs. Ingle and the staff of the Missouri School for the Deaf for their most gracious hospitality and for their untiring efforts in looking after the comfort of the members of the convention.

That we are grateful to Miss Dorothy Johnson, registrar, and Mrs. Dorothy Newland, matron of the Missouri School, and their assistants, for their excellent care of the visitors.

That we thank Mrs. Mary French Pearce and Mr. Arthur G. Norris for their efficiency in general arrangements and entertainment.

That we express our appreciation to Westminister and William Woods Colleges, the city of Fulton, and the chamber of commerce for their cooperation in making our stay very pleasant, and the part they played in making our convention so successful.

That we extend greetings and best wishes to Mr. Elwood A. Stevenson, President of the Convention and express our regret that he was not able to be with us on this occasion.

That we thank the interpreters who made it possible for the deaf to enjoy the programs.

That we appreciate the publicity given to the activities of this convention by the Fulton Sun-Gazette.

Be it resolved, That this convention cooperate fully with the National Association of the Deaf in its efforts to secure the passage of the Walsh-Curtis-McCormack bill establishing in the Department of Labor a bureau for the welfare of the deaf. And be it further

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed by the president of the convention to work in conjunction with the N. A. D. to this end.

Be it resolved, That this convention inaugurate, at the next regular meeting, an intensive training course for the benefit of vocational teachers; and be it further

Resolved, That the President of this convention be empowered and requested to appoint a committee of five members, of which the vocational section leader shall be one, to develop and put this into effect.

Be it resolved, That the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf welcomes the continued cooperation of the National Association of the Deaf in our efforts to serve the best interests of the deaf children of America.

Respectfully submitted by your committee on resolutions.

ALFRED L. BROWN, *Chairman*.
MARY D. WOOD.
EUGENIA THORNTON.
MARSHALL S. HESTER.
CARRIE LOU ABBOTT.

Mr. CLOUD. I make a motion we adopt the resolutions as read.

(The motion was seconded by Mr. Helmer Myklebust, put, and carried.)

Dr. BJORLEE. We have another resolution which was not included with the rest, because it should be acted upon separately. I will ask Dr. Brown if he won't kindly read this resolution.

Dr. BROWN (reading):

RESOLUTION

We, the undersigned, feel that the art section, meeting as a separate unit, has been of sufficient importance to warrant our continuing to be recognized as such. Signed, Mrs. Geneva B. Llewellyn, Wisconsin, chairman, 1941; Lois T. Kelly, Missouri; Margaret E. Fitzpatrick, Indiana; Hazel Laughlin, Iowa; Catherine Torgeson, Kansas, and William H. Grow, Florida.

Dr. BJORLEE. This resolution will embody a change in the constitution, because we have no section set aside for the art department, and this resolution calls for a new section, separate from vocational training. I feel it is entirely in order, and on a two-thirds vote we have a right to make that amendment at this time. I certainly feel that our art section is entitled to such recognition.

Dr. SETTLES. If two-thirds of the membership here assembled agree, we can amend the constitution. I feel we should. The work of the vocational department has become so large, I believe we should have a separate section and make a motion to that effect.

Dr. BJORLEE. Dr. Settles makes the motion that the art section be separated from vocational training and be made a separate section.

(The motion was seconded by Dr. Anderson, put, and carried unanimously.)

Dr. BJORLEE. There being a unanimous vote, I am sure we are justified in adopting this change to the constitution.

A note has been handed to me by Mr. Underhill, for the deaf teachers assembled, and it reads as follows:

The deaf teachers present at this convention wish to express their profound gratitude to Mr. Charles B. Grow for arranging for the services of interpreters and to the interpreters themselves. The deaf teachers also wish to express their appreciation of the splendid program arranged for their benefit in the section for deaf teachers.

We now go to the election of officers. Under the election of officers the first name that presents itself is that of a president for the coming biennial period. What is your pleasure?

Mr. J. LYMAN STEED. I would like to nominate for the presidency of this organization, one who has earned the privilege of being president. I believe you will all agree with me. I would like to nominate Dr. Clarence J. Settles of Florida. [Applause.]

(The nomination was seconded by Mr. Victor O. Skyberg, put, and carried.)

Dr. BJORLEE. The next in order is the vice president.

Dr. HALL. Mr. Chairman, I would like to have the privilege of presenting to this meeting, as candidate for vice president, another broad-shouldered young man who has been very active and very able in all of our deliberations, Mr. Leonard M. Elstad of Minnesota. [Applause.]

Dr. BJORLEE. The name of Mr. Elstad has been proposed. Does the name of Mr. Elstad have a second?

(The nomination was seconded by Mr. Myklebust and Mr. Cloud.)

Dr. BJORLEE. Any other nominations? If not, I believe it is in order to declare the nominations closed and suspend the rules by requesting the secretary to cast the unanimous vote of the convention for Mr. Elstad as vice president.

Mr. BURTON M. DRIGGS, secretary. It is so ordered.

Dr. BJORLEE. At the California convention, it was voted that we elect a second vice president. If it is your wish, and I am sure it is, that we have a second vice president, will someone make a nomination?

Mr. INGLE. Mr. Chairman, I would like to place in nomination the name of one who has long been a worker in this organization, Miss Jennie M. Henderson.

Dr. BJORLEE. The name of Miss Jennie M. Henderson as second vice president has been offered.

(The nomination was seconded by Mr. Irving S. Fufeld.)

Dr. BJORLEE. Are there any other nominations? This is a democratic gathering and it is your convention. Do we hear any further nominations? If not, I will declare the nominations closed and ask the secretary to cast the unanimous ballot of this gathering for Miss Henderson for the position of second vice president.

Mr. DRIGGS. The ballot is so cast.

Dr. BJORLEE. The next position is that of secretary. What is your wish in the matter?

Mr. CLOUD. Mr. Chairman, I take the pleasure and privilege of presenting for the office of secretary our distinguished friend from Idaho, Mr. Burton W. Driggs.

Dr. BJORLEE. You have heard the nomination made by Mr. Cloud. Does that have a second?

(The nomination was seconded by several members.)

Dr. BJORLEE. We will have to suspend the suspended rules again, and I will ask Mr. Fufeld to cast the unanimous ballot for Secretary Driggs.

Mr. FUSFELD. Mr. Chairman, it is my pleasure to cast the unanimous vote of the convention for the office of secretary for Mr. Burton W. Driggs of Idaho.

Dr. BJORLEE. The next position is that of treasurer. What is your pleasure in the matter of the treasurer for the coming biennial period?

Mr. W. T. GRIFFING (Oklahoma). I move that we re-elect Mr. Underhill.

(The nomination was seconded by Mr. W. H. Grow.)

Dr. BJORLEE. Are there any other nominations for treasurer? If not, the nominations are closed and we will ask our secretary to again function.

Mr. DRIGGS. It is ordered that the unanimous vote be cast for Mr. Underhill as treasurer.

Dr. BJORLEE. And now we come to the directors, comprised of three members. I think it has been the custom to elect them one at a time. What is your pleasure in this matter?

Dr. SETTLES. Mr. Chairman, for the first member I would like to suggest the name of our genial host and capable superintendent of the Missouri School for the Deaf, Mr. Truman L. Ingle.

Dr. BJORLEE. You have heard the name of Mr. Ingle proposed. Have we a second?

(The nomination was seconded by several members.)

Dr. BJORLEE. Do you wish a second member for that committee at this time? Whom might we suggest for a second member on the committee, or shall we vote?

Mr. J. LYMAN STEED. I would like to suggest the name of Miss Edith M. Nelson of Gallaudet College.

Dr. BJORLEE. Does that have a second?

(The nomination was seconded by Mr. Grow.)

Dr. BJORLEE. Then we come to the third member on the committee. What is your pleasure?

Mr. SKYBERG. I propose the name of Superintendent Rankin of North Carolina.

Dr. BJORLEE. Do we have a second?

(The nomination was seconded by several members.)

Dr. BJORLEE. Any other nominations?

Mr. EDWIN G. PETERSON. I nominate Mr. Arthur B. Willis, teacher in British Columbia School for the Deaf in Vancouver.

Dr. BJORLEE. Mr. Arthur B. Willis, teacher in the British Columbia School for the Deaf, Vancouver, has been nominated. I believe, the proper thing for us to do then would be to vote first on the two who have no opposing candidates against their names, and if it is in order, I would like to ask the secretary to cast the ballot of the convention for Mr. Ingle and Miss Nelson as first and second members of the board of directors.

Mr. DRIGGS. The ballot is so cast.

Dr. BJORLEE. Now, you have two nominations before you for the third position and the secretary will kindly prepare his ballots and have them distributed.

While the secretary is preparing his ballot, and in order that there may be no time lost I will ask Mr. Harlow to give us the report of the special committee on athletics. Mr. Harlow has served very faithfully and diligently on this committee in collaboration with Mr. Cloud as chairman of the committee.

Mr. G. W. HARLOW. Fellow members of the convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, this has been a great deal of hard work, and I hope it will be of at least a little service in coordinating and directing the athletic programs of our various schools.

The athletics have been, for a number of years, more or less unorganized, and there have been tournaments held that should not have been held and which have not been conducted and managed properly. The idea is to have an athletic board of control from the convention of American Instructors of the Deaf that will take charge, and whose consent must be secured before the event is conducted.

The committee has given considerable work and effort in trying to find out what was being done, and what the conditions are, and what needs to be done to solve these problems. The time has been too short to offer a solution, but we do have what we think might be the first step in the right direction.

It seems, from the replies that have been received, there are two definite problems which face us. The first problem concerns those schools that belong to the State high school athletic associations, and the second problem has to do with those schools that do not.

Last Tuesday, at the first general session of the convention, printed copies of the report of the committee were given to all who attended. If there is anyone here who would like a copy, there are some by the door, which may be taken as you go out.

REPORT OF SPECIAL COMMITTEE ON ATHLETICS FOR THE CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF

Tabulation of replies from schools

School	Sbs A.A.	Ntl Fed	Age S. D.	Sbs Age	Yrs Cmp	Sec Trn	Ntl Trn	Adv Cncl	SP CM	All Amr	Fin Aid	Remarks
Alabama	N	Y	21	21	6	Y	Y	Y	---	Y	Y	White deaf only in South.
Arizona	N	C	21	20	4	Y	Y	---	---	Y	Y	Aid if section has team entered.
Arkansas	Y	C	21	20	4	Y	Y	---	---	---	---	No reply. Survey by J. M. Smith, Jr.
California	Y	Y	*20	*18	4	D	D	Y	---	(?)	Y	Members only. Too isolated.
Colorado	N	Y	21	21	U	Y	Y	P	---	---	N	Too isolated. *Reversed.
Conn.-American	N	Y	21	19	5	Y	Y	Y	---	Y	---	Dislikes term "Play Day."
D. C. Kendall	N	N	21	20	U	Y	N	Y	---	---	Y	Why camouflage "tournament?"
Florida	N	C	21½	20	U	Y	Y	Y	---	Y	Y	Only one American Board.
Georgia	N	C	21	21	4	Y	N	P	---	1	N	
Idaho	Y	Y	21	20	4	N	N	Y	---	(?)	Y	
Illinois	Y	Y	19	19	4	Y	Y	Y	---	(?)	P	
Indiana	N	N	20	20	4	Y	N	Y	---	N	N	
Iowa	Y	Y	19	19	4	---	---	---	---	---	---	Discuss at Fulton.
Kansas	Y	Y	19	19	4	* (?)	N	---	---	(?)	---	*1942 Tourney refused by N. F.
Kentucky	N	Y	21	21	6	Y	Y	P	---	---	(?)	
Louisiana	Y	Y	21	20	4	Y	Y	Y	---	Y	Y	Prefers unlimited competition.
Maryland	N	N	21	20	U	Y	Y	Y	---	Y	Y	Aid by per capita only.
Mass. Clarke	N	N	20	19	U	N	N	Y	---	Y	N	Athletic Director likes tournaments.
Michigan	Y	Y	19	19	4	N	N	Y	---	Y	Y	Cannot participate. SHS Reg.
Minnesota	Y	Y	19	19	4	N	N	Y	---	N	N	State Assn. dislikes tourney.
Mississippi	Y	C	21	21	5	Y	Y	N	---	N	N	Own state eligibility for tourney.
Missouri	Y	Y	21	21	4	Y	N	Y	---	Y	N	
Montana	N	Y	21	18	4	(?)	---	Y	---	---	---	Too isolated to compete.
Nebraska	Y	Y	20	20	4	(?)	---	---	---	---	---	Council not necessary for Nebr.
New Jersey	N	N	21	19	4	Y	Y	Y	---	N (?)	Y	All-American disrupts coordination.
New Mexico	N	Y	21	19	U	N	---	---	---	---	---	
New York	N	Y	21	19	4	Y	(?)	Y	---	1	Y	Only one All-American Board.
Rochester	N	---	19	---	4	Y	Y	---	---	(?)	N	Competes with Rochester schools.
St. Josephs	N	---	21	---	U	N	N	Y	---	Y	N	
St. Marys	N	---	21	---	4	Y	Y	Y	---	Y	N	Member Catholic HS AA N. Y.
North Carolina	Y	N	21	21	4	Y	Y	---	Y	Y	Y	
North Dakota	Y	N	21	20	4	Y	Y	---	---	Y	Y	
Oklahoma	N	N	21	21	4	Y	N	P	---	Y	(?)	
Ohio	N	N	19	19	4	Y	N	N	---	(?)	---	
Oregon	N	Y	20	18	4	Y	Y	Y	---	N	N	Too isolated to compete.
Pennsylvania	N	Y	21	19	4	Y	Y	Y	---	Y	Y	PIAA under 19 starting 9-1-41.
Western Pennsylvania	N	---	21	---	U	Y	(?)	(?)	---	(?)	N	P&WnP out at 21st birthday.
Rhode Island	Y	N	20	19	4	Y	N	---	---	---	---	Fears over emphasis on basketball.
South Carolina	N	N	21	---	U	Y	Y	Y	---	(?)	Y	
South Dakota	Y	Y	20	20	4	(?)	N	(?)	---	N	---	Doubts need for a Council.
Tennessee	Y	Y	20	20	5	*Y	N	Y	---	N	N	SHSAA & Ntl. Fed. objections.
Texas	N	N	21	19	4	Y	Y	Y	---	Y	Y	Invites National for 1942.
Utah	N	Y	21	20	---	---	---	Y	---	Y	---	Too isolated to compete.
Vermont	N	N	21	20	U	---	---	Y	---	Y	---	Too small in size to compete.
Virginia	N	N	21	20½	6	Y	Y	Y	---	Y	Y	Flat rate of not more than \$2.
Washington	Y	Y	20	20	4	N	N	---	---	---	---	Cost in time and money too high.
West Virginia	N	C	21	21	4	Y	Y	Y	---	Y	Y	O. K. for 5c per capita.
Wisconsin	N	Y	20	19	4	Y	Y	Y	---	(?)	Y	Doubts willingness of schools.

Footnotes for this table are on facing page.

FINDINGS

Fifty-six schools were contacted and 54 replied to the request for information. The replies from 48 schools are tabulated.

Thirty schools are not members of their State high school athletic associations; 18 are members.

Thirty-eight States are now members of the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations; 10 are not. The national federation has charge primarily over interstate activities between high schools. Their objectives are uniform regulations to govern all interstate activities and to sanction or disapprove requests for this type of competition.

Thirty-one of the schools for the deaf have a maximum age limit of 21 years; 10 have 20 years; 7 have 19 years. A few of the smaller schools are not strictly limited to the maximum of 21.

Eighteen States have a maximum limit of 19 years for high-school boys; 15 have 20 years; 10 have a maximum of 21. South Carolina did not reply on this point.

Thirty-one schools for the deaf use a 4-year eligibility rule; 13 use 6 years or unlimited; 3 use a 5-year regulation. Utah gave no reply on this.

Thirty-three schools for the deaf are in favor of continuing the sectional basketball tournaments; seven are not in favor; five are undecided, and three expressed no opinion on the matter.

Twenty-two schools favor the national tourney; 17 are opposed to it; 3 are doubtful of its value; 6 did not answer the question.

Twenty-eight schools favor the formation of an advisory council from the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf; 12 did not vote; 6 are doubtful; 3 are definitely opposed.

Three voted to continue a special committee, preferring it to the advisory council.

Seventeen schools favor the continuance of all American boards; 10 are doubtful of their value; 8 are opposed; 12 expressed no opinion. Two schools suggest having only one board.

Eighteen schools favor giving financial aid to the advisory council; 13 are opposed; 14 did not make any expression on the matter; 3 were doubtful.

COMMENT

The replies indicate that there are two distinct phases to the tournament problem. The schools that have joined their State high-school associations in order to secure approval of their teams for local competition with the high schools are finding it increasingly difficult to secure permission from either their State associations or the national federation to conduct or participate in any interstate basketball tournaments.

No replies: Mystic, Ct., and Penna. Oral. The following gave no information to tabulate: Maine, Mass-Beverly and Boston, N. Y., Central and Northern.

KEY: Shs A. A.—Membership in the State Association? Nil Fed-Is Shs AA affiliated with the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations? Thirty-eight states are now members. Age S. D.—Age limits for schools for the deaf? Shs Age—State HS AA limits? Yes Cmp—Number of years an athlete may play on a team in schools for the deaf? Sec Trn—Does school favor a sectional tournament? Nil Trn—Vote on a National? Adv Cncl—Does school favor an Advisory Council? SP CM—Prefer a Special Committee until 1943? All Amr—Does school favor the continuance of All-American Boards? Fin Aid—Should Conference members aid in financing the National? Y—Yes; N—No; C—Considering; U—Unlimited; P—Perhaps; ?—Questionable; D—Depends on conditions.

There is a variation in age limits in the different sections, but it seems that the wise procedure for the present is to allow any boy who is eligible in his sectional tourney to participate in the national under the same regulations. Almost two-thirds of the schools have a maximum age limit of 21 which in most cases means the twenty-first birthday.

The problems involved with the State associations and the national federation will be the most difficult to solve, but perhaps a few general considerations might be stated:

1. Those schools for the deaf that are members of their State high-school athletic associations have accepted certain responsibilities and have received in return certain privileges by joining these organizations, and it would seem that they are honor bound to abide by the rules and regulations of their associations if they wish to continue their memberships.

2. Each school should consider its athletic program in terms of the physical welfare of the athletes who participate. Are sectional or national tournaments, for those schools that are free to choose, too strenuous to contribute to the physical welfare of the boys? (Many State high-school associations will not sanction the participation of any high-school team in more than one basketball game in any 24-hour period. This is a most excellent rule for boys of 15, 16, or 17 years of age. The average age of the teams in most of the schools for the deaf is about 19, and this 2-year period greatly changes the physical stamina and endurance of the boys. Further study should be given the matter before deciding that the tournaments as conducted are harmful to the athletes.)

3. The factor of cost for a limited number to participate in a tourney or a game at any great distance as compared with the total budget allowance for the entire physical education program for all the children in school should be taken into consideration.

4. The advantages gained through the social fellowship, the publicity and the competition with other boys from similar schools should be compared with the disadvantages of too many games in the short space of time and the possibility of overemphasis on basketball.

5. There should be an interval of at least 2 weeks between participation in any two different tournaments.

6. As a safeguard against illness or overexertion each tourney squad should have a minimum of 10 players allowed to the group.

7. The majority of the competition for all schools for the deaf should be with hearing teams but a limited amount with similar schools is desirable.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Name.—The advisory council on health, physical education, and athletics of the convention of American Instructors of the Deaf.

Objectives.—1. To supervise all intersectional competition, and to require the approval of the chairman of the council before final arrangements may be made for any events.

2. To make a further study of the athletic situation and on these findings, recommend and support those aims and policies which seem best adapted to promote the health, education, and happiness of the deaf in their athletic relationships.

3. To aid in financing, developing, and maintaining facilities and safeguards for all intersectional competition.

4. To maintain a constant study of such activities and make appraisals of their values with appropriate recommendations to the convention at its biennial meetings.

5. To publicize and promote those incentives and activities that appear to contribute most to the development of both personality and physical efficiency of the deaf.

Organization.—This advisory council shall be composed of two representatives from each of the organized sections of the United States, one of these to be a superintendent or principal and the other preferably a teacher of physical education or an athletic coach. There are five organized sections at the present time; ultimately three more should organize.

There shall be one superintendent and one teacher appointed to represent the unorganized States.

The executive committee shall consist of a chairman from one section and the secretary, if practicable, from another, with one member from each of the other sections.

All matters relating to changes of policy shall be presented at some special meeting called for this purpose during the biennial meeting of the convention.

This committee shall permit the continuance of the sectional basketball tournaments during the next 2-year period. (This to be modified as may be necessary due to the declaration of a national emergency by the President.)

The council shall prepare in greater detail regulations to cover the questions of eligibility, age limits, racial problems, and financial assistance to the national tournament.

Mr. HARLOW. The schools that are members of the high school athletic associations have a very definite problem of their own. The State associations, in a number of cases, have refused to grant permission for those schools to participate in tournaments of schools for the deaf, either in the sectional tournaments or the national tournaments as held in the past. In that portion of the report, under "Comment" No. 1, appears the following:

Those schools for the deaf that are members of their State high school athletic associations have accepted certain responsibilities and have received in return certain privileges by joining these organizations and it would seem that they are honor bound to abide by the rules and regulations of their associations if they wish to continue their membership.

The report as revealed by the brief questionnaire on the value of the all-American boards cast some doubt as to where there is a definite educational value connected with the all-American boards for football and basketball as they have selected boys in the past and honored them by naming them to all-American teams. The general consensus of opinion, that is, the majority, seems to indicate that there is not enough value to warrant their continuation in the same manner in which they have been conducted prior to this time.

I do have an alternate suggestion that I would like to present, which I think would offer the opportunity to recognize worthy boys, and to give them a recognition that would be somewhat in accord with that which has been given in the past by the all-American boards. There would be no teams selected under this plan. The idea proposed would

be to offer each school for the deaf, regardless of its enrollment, the opportunity to name 1 boy annually for an honor merit award of national significance, the award to be made only when requested by a school and fulfilling the following conditions, that the larger schools may name one additional boy for each 50 boys enrolled in the high-school department. Thus, if you have under 50 boys in the high-school department, you would be limited to 1 boy annually. If the school has a greater number than 50, it would be permissible to name 2 boys. If the school had a greater number than 100 in the high-school department, as some of the larger schools may have, it would be permissible to name three, if it were so desired.

There is no obligation to name anybody. The boys would be chosen by the people of the school who live with the boys and not by those who see them on parade. In a tournament a boy may look and appear entirely different from what he appears in the classroom, in the dormitory or in the vocational school, and I think that with the home folks doing the selecting and the award being given national significance, we might have an incentive to better scholarship, to better sportsmanship, and encouragement that would add to character building.

Then, the committee on athletics recommends that an advisory council on health, physical education, and athletics of the convention of American instructors of the deaf be formed to carry on this work and to complete an unfinished task that this committee brings to you in its report. [Applause.]

Dr. BJORLEE. You have just been listening to a splendid report covering a great deal of work done, over a period of 2 years, on the subject of competitive athletics among our boys. I don't believe, with the time we have at our disposal we are in any position to take any definite action one way or the other, unless you have some one concrete proposition you wish to offer. What I would like to see done is to see this committee continue its deliberations and submit to our schools from time to time its findings, in order that we can adopt some program at the next convention 2 years hence.

Mr. HARLOW. I ask the privilege of having the committee continued.

Mr. SKYBERG. I should like to move an adoption of the report, if it is final, at this time.

Dr. HALL. It is not a final report, it is only a preliminary report.

Mr. SKYBERG. I move we adopt it that way.

Dr. BJORLEE. I have read the report very carefully. I don't believe the committee means for us to adopt it. Certain of the suggestions would appear to be made for our consideration rather than to be put into effect. What do you suggest, Mr. Harlow?

Mr. HARLOW. I would like to recommend that you definitely adopt the proposal that the advisory council on health, physical education, and athletics of the convention of American instructors of the deaf further study the situation and report at the 1943 convention.

Mr. SKYBERG. That will be my motion then.

(The motion was seconded.)

Dr. BJORLEE. We all need to study this very carefully. All in favor of the motion signify by saying "aye." The motion is carried.

The next order of business is invitations for the next convention.

Dr. SETTLES. Mr. Chairman, members of the convention, I would like to extend a very warm invitation, not as warm as the Missouri invitation, for this convention to come, in 1943, to St. Augustine, Fla.

We have the oldest alligators in the world there. We can give you an example for longevity. Within two blocks of the school we have the Fountain of Youth. Every morning before going to my office, I take a little walk by that place and I am in fine fettle for the day's work.

We have beautiful scenery in Florida, some of the most beautiful scenery that you ever saw. It does get warm in Florida, but it is no warmer than here today, and the nights are delightful. We have splendid breezes from the ocean. St. Augustine is located on a beach, and if you just bring your swimming togs along, you can go over and get cooled off.

St. Augustine is a town of about 15,000. It is a tourist town. We have some splendid hotels. We have many tourist camps and we have many rooming houses. I believe we have the facilities for entertaining all that will come to Florida.

We have in the hands of our secretary here a most cordial invitation from the board of control, governing board of our school, the Honorable Mr. Harrihan, Governor of Florida, from the State Chamber of Commerce, the St. Augustine Chamber of Commerce, the Rotary, Kiwanis, Pilot Club, and every organization I know. We would be mighty glad to have you come. Thank you.

Dr. BJORLEE. Do we have further invitations?

Mr. E. R. WRIGHT. Mr. Chairman and ladies and gentlemen of the convention, I would like to point out to you this morning a few things that probably had not been brought to your attention heretofore. In 1845 the great State of Texas, which was then a nation in itself, was annexed to the United States and became a part of this Nation. A few years after that time, as a matter of fact in 1856, the Texas School for the Deaf was established, and at a later date a \$1,000,000 plant was built to take care of the Negro deaf within the capital city of Austin, Tex. The Texas School for the Deaf ranges among the five largest in the United States. From a physical standpoint, we rate among the largest in the United States.

We have, in all probability, within the city of Austin, an educational program for more deaf children than there is within any one city in the United States.

I would like to call your attention to the fact that since that school has been established, not one time has Texas ever had a conference of executives, a convention of the educators of the deaf, nor has this organization ever in any way given us any inspiration by your meeting with us there to help educate our citizenship as to the importance of the education of the deaf.

Now, I am perfectly frank with you with reference to this invitation. Mr. Settles is a good friend of mine. I am willing to do this, to leave the cause of Texas in your hands and submit my invitation in writing to your chairman at this time. But, anyway, we want you to think about Texas and at some future date we hope to have you in our midst and give you some real Southern hospitality. Thank you very much.

Dr. BJORLEE. Truly, this is developing into a love feast. Mr. Wright has presented a stirring appeal, and I think the wise thing for us to do will be to turn both invitations over to the incoming officers and board to determine the place for holding our next convention.

Dr. HALL. I move that the decision on the place for the next meeting of the convention be left in the hands of the new committee, which governs this body.

(The motion was seconded by J. Lyman Steed, put, and carried.)

Dr. BJORLEE. I can assure you we are mighty sorry we cannot go to both places at one and the same time.

Mr. Ingle called my attention to a little matter which I think is rather important. We are within 12 of reaching a very high goal of registration. I am wondering if there are not within the hearing of my voice 12 or 14 persons who have not registered, and if they will kindly go to the office and register that will bring our attendance up to the 700 mark. We are just 12 short of the 700 mark, which is certainly a splendid registration.

The time is almost up. May I emphasize the importance of the certification plan for our teachers. If there are any questions you would like to ask, you have the opportunity of seeing the secretary of the committee, Mr. Fوسفeld, or discuss the matter with me, its chairman, if you choose. We are very anxious to add to the growing list of certified teachers under the conference of the executives plan.

What other business is there to come before us?

Mr. T. BRILL. I would like to bring up the matter of the publication of the Convention Bulletin, or rather the question of its continuance. The Convention Bulletin has been published for 9 years and I think it has served a very useful purpose. During the last 2 or 3 years the cooperation of the teachers in the matter of contributions has fallen down to such an extent that I question whether the continuation of the publication of the Convention Bulletin is worth while. My recommendation is that it be discontinued, at least for awhile, and I would suggest that it be left in the hands of the president or a committee appointed by the president to decide on the further continuation of the Convention Bulletin.

Mr. Fوسفeld. I would like to suggest that the matter be placed in the hands of the incoming executive committee to consider.

Dr. ANDERSON. I would like to ask a question in that connection. Mr. Brill speaks of the Convention Bulletin. Is he aware also that we have a Vocational Bulletin? Is that supposed to include both?

Mr. BRILL. I spoke to Mr. Norris about the Vocational Bulletin, and he agrees with me that the question of publication is extremely difficult because of the lack of cooperation on the part of the teachers.

Dr. ANDERSON. I am glad that you made that clear. I agree with them both.

Dr. BJORLEE. I believe the Vocational Bulletin can be incorporated in the motion made by Mr. Fوسفeld.

Dr. HALL. That it be left to the incoming executive committee of the convention?

Dr. BJORLEE. That is right.

(The motion was seconded, put, and carried.)

Dr. BJORLEE. We have here the result of balloting for the third member of the board of directors. It reads as follows: Dr. Rankin, 91; Mr. Willis, 86. Dr. Rankin is duly elected.

The report of the nominating committee for section committee leaders will now be read to you by the secretary.

Mr. DRIGGS. (Reads report.)

SECTION COMMITTEE LEADERS

Supervision.—Richard G. Brill, principal, Virginia School.

Preschool and kindergarten.—Virginia Rosser, Gough School, San Francisco.

Speech.—Mary C. New, supervisor of speech and acoustic training, Lexington School, New York City.

Auricular training and rhythm.—Elizabeth Johnson, supervisor of acoustic work, Illinois School.

Curriculum content.—John A. Gough, superintendent Oklahoma School. [Note: Include social and character training.]

Vocational training and art.—Arthur G. Norris, supervisor, vocational, Missouri School.

Health and physical education.—Jacob Caskey, Indiana School.

Publication.—Mr. Tobias Brill, New Jersey School.

MARGARET BODYCOMB, *Chairman.*

J. L. STEED,

A. THOMPSON,

M. F. PEARCE,

J. L. UTLEY,

E. TATE.

Dr. HALL. Mr. Chairman, I would like to move the adoption of that slate with the proviso that as we have arranged for a separate group for art—isn't that correct—that the executive committee be empowered to select a leader for that new section to add to this list.

(The motion was put and carried unanimously.)

Dr. BJORLEE. That motion includes the adding of an art section as voted upon earlier in the meeting.

Now, we have one more matter to consider. Mr. Ingle.

Mr. INGLE. There was brought to our attention this morning an expression of thanks from the deaf for the section for deaf teachers, which is a part of this convention. I feel, because this section was so well attended and because there was so much interest evinced in it, that in the future we should provide for such a section and I, therefore, move at this time that the convention amend the constitution so that a section for deaf teachers will be provided at future conventions. May I add to that motion that the executive committee be empowered to select a leader for the coming convention?

Dr. BJORLEE. You have heard the motion. I don't know that there is anything irregular about it. Are we ready to include another sectional committee leader on deaf teachers. If that is the wish of the deaf teachers, I think we would be very glad indeed to pass it, although no time has been allowed for consideration or discussion. The motion has been made and seconded. Are there any remarks?

Dr. HALL. Mr. Chairman, I would like to hear some remarks from some of our deaf friends. Do we really want to separate our deaf friends from the others and have them go off in a corner and not be in the other sections? I don't know about that.

Dr. BJORLEE. That is exactly the feeling that came to me. I thought we were all one group here and I didn't see why the deaf should be in a separate section by themselves. Now, if it would help matters any I would be very happy to see it done, but I thought all of the deaf were included in our sectional meetings and provided for through interpreters. It seems to me this is a step toward separation rather than union.

Mr. INGLE. There are certain problems which deaf teachers have that we others do not and I made that motion because of the interest that was shown in this particular section. It was crowded daily, and

it is because of the comments that have come to me from the deaf teachers themselves that I made the motion. I feel that the section was a success, that the deaf teachers are not barred from the other meetings, that they are included just as they were before, but there is also provided a place where they may discuss their own problems, and I feel that they want such a section.

Dr. BJORLEE. You have a motion before you involving another change in our constitution. This should require a quorum and I don't think we have a quorum present now. Could not this matter be brought up at our next meeting? I feel it is rather important and we want to do exactly what is wanted.

Mr. INGLE. I will withdraw the motion.

Dr. BJORLEE. We will then lay this motion on the table to be taken up at our next meeting.

Mr. INGLE. May I make this suggestion? Let us do at the next convention as we did at this convention, and then formally act on the matter.

Dr. BJORLEE. I think that is a splendid suggestion. The recommendation has been made that we follow at our next convention, either in Florida or Texas, the same procedure that was adopted this year, with reference to special programs for deaf teachers. Then we can decide definitely whether it is necessary to incorporate the plan in our constitution at our next meeting.

(The motion was seconded by Dr. Hall, put and carried.)

Dr. BJORLEE. If there is no further business to be brought before us at this time, the meeting stands adjourned.

(Adjournment at 12:20 p. m.)

GENERAL SESSION, THURSDAY AFTERNOON, JUNE 26, 2 P. M.

Presiding: Irving S. Fusfeld, dean, Gallaudet College.

Paper: Improving Our Educational Opportunities Through Curriculum Development. Dr. Christine P. Ingram, assistant director, special education, Rochester, N. Y. and Elizabeth Dunlap, Rochester Day School, Rochester, N. Y.

Paper: A National School of Trades, Agriculture, and Technical Training for the Deaf, Harvey B. Barnes, supervisor, vocational department, Illinois school.

Address: Health and Physical Education, George W. Harlow, Pennsylvania school.

Address: The Role of Religion in an Education for Character Development, Dr. Franc Lewis McCluer, president, Westminster College, Fulton, Mo.

The Thursday afternoon general session of the convention convened at 2 p. m. in the auditorium of the Advanced School Building, Dean Irving S. Fusfeld presiding.

Mr. FUSFELD. I have been asked to make the announcement that a decision has been reached as to where we shall hold our next convention, and the decision was to hold it in St. Augustine, Fla., in the year 1943. [Applause.]

Now, we are all aware that the atmosphere is pretty warm, and your chairman this afternoon promises not to add to that warmth. We have before us a varied and, I believe, important program. The topics to be taken up are of importance to us all, regardless of the portion of the work we are dealing with individually. We shall begin with the broad problem of the curriculum. The first subject before us will be a paper, Improving Our Educational Opportunities Through Curriculum Development. This is a study prepared jointly

by Miss Elizabeth Dunlap, who is in charge of the Day School for the Deaf and Hard of Hearing in Rochester, N. Y., and Dr. Christine P. Ingram, assistant director of special education in the public schools of Rochester, N. Y. I regret very much that Dr. Ingram cannot be with us this afternoon.

It is my pleasure to introduce to you Miss Dunlap, who will read the paper.

IMPROVING OUR EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES THROUGH CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

(Dr. CHRISTINE P. INGRAM, assistant director, special education, Rochester, N. Y., and ELIZABETH DUNLAP, Rochester Day School, Rochester, N. Y.)

Those of us who are concerned with the education of the deaf have an engaging adventure as we face day by day the challenge of our task. The teacher is aware today, as never before, of changing trends and practices, and is looking for improved ways and means of helping children. She is no longer satisfied with a formal outline of skills and information which the deaf child must acquire in order to speak and to master the tool subjects. She looks for a more vital guide to classroom practice. Curriculum study, therefore, offers fruitful return to the thoughtful, inquiring teacher. Let us consider together how teachers in a school for the deaf may coordinate their time and effort in study and exchange of experiences which will result in a functioning, live curriculum for the pupils of their school.

What is the curriculum? In brief, it consists of all those experiences which the school provides for the growing child from the day of his entrance to the day he leaves the school, having completed its program. Curriculum, in terms of experiences for the growing child, is an inclusive concept; it implies completeness in respect to all phases of child growth, physical, mental, social, and educational, at any one age or period; it implies completeness, also, in respect to the span of growth and development from early childhood to adolescence.

Can a faculty write a curriculum? Certain supervisors and teachers would answer "No," in the sense that the teachers and pupils in action comprise the learning experiences, which make up the curriculum, and what those real experiences shall be cannot be wholly anticipated and framed in written form. They are dependent on the particular situation and child needs of each individual and group. But the majority would answer "Yes," in the sense that out of study and of teaching experience with normal and deaf children of different age levels, teachers may together consider the abilities, needs, and interests of growing children. As a result of this consideration, they may formulate a statement of philosophy, of common purposes, and of basic experiences suitable to each level of the child's development. In other words, teachers can, through cooperative endeavor, build a curriculum to serve as a chart or guide to each teacher in her choice of classroom activities for the children in her immediate charge. The discussion in this paper is an outgrowth of experience in curriculum building for handicapped children in the public school system of Rochester, N. Y.

If teachers undertake the cooperative development of a curriculum for deaf children, what are the significant trends in special education

which will be likely to influence their thinking? The first trend is the increasing acceptance of the premise that the child with a handicap has needs and interests in common with the normal child and shall be educated to participate in normal life activities to the fullest of his capacities. This premise implies also the recognition of the social patterns of society and of the responsibility for guiding the child to achieve adequate social sufficiency. Dr. Elbert A. Gruver has said "The purpose of education for the deaf child is to make and keep him as nearly normal as possible."

A second trend places emphasis on the unique character of each individual's development. Each individual is endowed with his own peculiar combination of characteristics and tendencies and his development is dependent on the interaction of his growing and changing organism and the environmental conditions which surround it. While Dr. Gesell's studies of child growth at the Yale Clinic of Child Development and recent case studies of adolescents made by a research committee of the Progressive Education Association reveal certain patterns of behavior resulting from common factors, these studies reveal for the most part the striking uniqueness of individual behavior and individual problems. Although possessing the same characteristics of development, deaf children, like other children, differ in respect to capacity for learning and in respect to the opportunities afforded by their individual home and school environment, including the influence of the attitudes of others toward their handicap. Each deaf child, like every other child, requires careful, intelligent study with regard to all these factors.

The third trend is the recognition that school life must have purpose and meaning for the child and fulfill his needs as he strives to make a happy and satisfying adjustment to the demands of persons and events in his environment. School experiences must become real, meaningful, and purposeful in terms of the individual child's development. Learning is only beneficial to the child to the degree that it results in new and improved ways of behavior which he finds useful and satisfying in his daily experiences both in and out of school. School life must be so integrated with real life that children find a ready means for applying all that they learn. These three trends, aiding the child to grow up to participation in normal life activities, recognizing the unique individuality of each child, and providing for meaningful, purposeful child experience in the school, imply on the teacher's part a thorough understanding of child growth and development and the effects of serious hearing loss on the child's adjustment.

A perspective of child growth and development from infancy through adolescence is vital in an understanding of children and is a basic requisite for an adequate curriculum. Rochester teacher committees have derived genuine benefit and stimulation in the choice of curriculum experiences from the study of child development. There is not time to review the subject in this paper.

As the teacher studies each level of development in this manner, up through the adolescent's strong urges for independence and new experience, she arrives at a perspective which enables her to better understand the focus of problems at any one particular age and to see her part in the continuous stream of experiences which the school provides from early childhood to adolescence. The teacher then views child

behavior at any point in the light of all that has gone before and realizes the significance of meeting the child's problems adequately at each step of his school life. Hence, the understandings and inspiration that can be derived by all teachers from the several nursery-school experiments which are at present under way in schools for the deaf—experiments which are proving the value of early educational training.

The first step, then, that is suggested in curriculum building, is teacher study of child growth and its needs at the several levels of development in relation to the society in which the child must function. A program of teacher observation and records of child behavior in the classroom, on the playground, and in the dormitory is advised as an accompaniment to reading and discussion. Observation of normal children in different situations will also be fruitful. Supervisors or teachers cannot build an adequate curriculum without intimate acquaintance with all aspects of child life.

The second step is the study and formulation of an educational philosophy as a guide for choosing curriculum experiences and the method of their development in the classroom. An increased understanding and appreciation of how children grow and develop will undoubtedly influence the teacher in the definition of a philosophy. The relationship of education to growth, the individual character of child problems at successive levels, child interest and need in relation to the immediate life around him, the active nature of child behavior, the urge for self-direction and independence, the social pattern to which he must conform—all these elements are significant. The teacher's conception of child nature and of the function of education in the life of the deaf child will determine her educational philosophy. Supervisors and teachers together must arrive at a common philosophy in order to plan for and ultimately achieve optimum classroom results.

The consideration so far has been given to laying a basic foundation in order that the curriculum may have meaning and purpose in terms of the pupils it will serve. An examination of the more recent curriculum for both normal and handicapped children indicates that outlines of subject fields give place to an organization of experiences in living and learning or so-called units of work which provide the motivating setting for child learning. Such units at the primary level, for example, furnish opportunities for physical activity, for observation and exploration, for inquiry, for manipulation of tools and materials, for construction and play, for communication, for naming, for counting, for reading, and so on. And developed out of life in the immediate environment of the child, they enable the teacher to guide the deaf child in learning and understanding the people, things, and events in that environment.

Following our study at Rochester of the all-round development and needs of children at each level, we examined our Rochester curriculum for normal children which is organized in units centered in home and school interests, neighborhood interests, city life, natural science, and man's need for food, clothing, shelter, and health. It seemed to us that these interests were closely related to the environment and problems which our seriously hard-of-hearing children were in need of understanding. In developing these units, however, we simplified their scope and planned for more first-hand observation by the child and interpretation by the teacher. Excursions and visual aids were care-

fully chosen to develop and clarify concepts and associations. The units were planned to provide motivation for dramatic and representative play, construction, modeling, and illustration—outlets much needed by the deaf and hard-of-hearing child. Vocabulary, speech, lip reading, and reading materials suited to the child's level were built around these activities. As we have studied the outcomes of these units in the classroom, we have been struck with the natural spontaneity and response of the children and their creative ability in expression, such as construction, modeling, and illustration. We have also noted a carry-over out of the classroom. Children bring into the classroom queries and ideas resulting from their out-of-school activities. Parents have reported that children are more observing and make more effort to express themselves.

The older the children grow, the more opportunity the unit plan affords for the motivation of language arts in which the deaf child needs so much instruction and practice. Certain lip-reading sounds, for example, furnish the basis for the children's compilation of word lists and stories relating to the activities of the unit. Children are at times guided to develop their own syllable drills, questions, statements, and stories. While a great deal of drill is necessary in speech and lip reading, its setting in meaningful, interesting context is more vital, enjoyable, and readily transferable to the normal situations in life in which these skills are needed. We have found that there is plentiful reading material related to social studies, health, and science problems for children at the later elementary level.

The third step, then, in curriculum development is the examination of objectives and attainments in skills, habits, attitudes, and basic information, covered by the present program, in the light of child growth, interests, and needs at each year from pre-school through the later elementary level. Study and planning of units of experience in which the child can engage physically, mentally, and socially with purpose and from which he can derive worth-while learnings should then ensue.

Throughout this paper, reference has been made to the continuous nature of growth and the value of a long-range perspective of child development. The most helpful teacher committee work, therefore, is often derived from a longitudinal committee organization which brings selected teachers of each age level of children together rather than a cross-section organization, which brings together teachers of only one age level. Classroom teachers of pre-school, primary, and later elementary divisions, for example, will find it helpful to meet in committee together for the study of speech, lip reading, language, and reading. A give and take—on experiences, at all levels, enables teachers to better appreciate both child and teacher problems at any one period. Cross-sectional committees may then follow the longitudinal committee organization in order to study and refine their particular areas of interest.

Finally, what form shall the curriculum take in its written plan and detail? The answer is that form which will best serve the teachers and children who will use it. Excellent forms that have proved helpful to others are available for study and reference. More than half the States have developed curricula within the last 10 years. It may be your State or a local city system near to you has a curriculum you

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will want to examine. Suggested references are included in the bibliography.

In summary, then, we have noted three educational trends which will guide curriculum development for deaf children. They are the recognition of, first, the need for optimum adjustment and participation in normal life activities; second, the individual nature of each child; and third, the value of meaningful experience in the classroom. In pursuit of improved curricula, teachers will find it helpful to study and enlarge their understanding of all aspects of child life, to formulate an educational philosophy, to evaluate their present classroom practices in the light of their study and findings, and finally to chart a curriculum in terms of vital classroom experiences designed to bring about optimum educational progress. This type of curriculum planning requires not only study on the teachers' part but initiative, resourcefulness, and experimentation. The teachers who undertake it, however, will be amply repaid by a broadened outlook and a renewed faith in the potentialities of education for deaf children. Harold Rugg has said, "It is the fullest development of the individual that constitutes true democracy. We would wish our schools to produce a society of men and women each of whom is developed to his very highest potential stature." As those who share in this great responsibility, we would welcome every opportunity which enables us to contribute more fully to its realization.

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Mr. FUSELD. We owe Dr. Ingram and Miss Dunlap our heartfelt thanks for this very clear-cut, fine statement of a very important problem. Thank you, Miss Dunlap.

If it will help you any in the dire circumstance in which we find ourselves at the moment, I would like to remind you, on direct advice from Dr. Settles, that when you go to St. Augustine to attend the next convention of our organization, please don't forget to take your bathing suits with you.

Now, in recent years there has been a feeling of uneasiness in the air in our work, that when we get through with our pupils and they have finished the course of study we provide for them, that somehow these pupils are not yet ready to face the world. And that feel-

ing of uneasiness, although it may disturb a great many of us, is in itself a wholesome thing to contemplate.

It takes leaders to do the stirring up. Most of us are content to wallow in the rut, and so it is well worth our while to heed the complaints that our leaders lay before us. So it would be to our advantage this afternoon to consider discussion of a topic that has been stirring in that manner. The topic deals with a proposed national vocational school. I have heard a good bit about the plan suggested by this topic, but as I do not wish to steal someone else's thunder, it is best, without much more ado, to introduce to you the gentleman who has been taking the leading part in stimulating thought along this line, Mr. Harvey B. Barnes, principal of the vocational department in the Illinois School. He has given his subject considerable thought and great effort, and it will be our pleasure this afternoon to hear from him in more detail about this proposal. Mr. Barnes. [Applause.]

A NATIONAL SCHOOL OF TRADES, AGRICULTURE, AND TECHNICAL TRAINING FOR THE DEAF

(HARVEY B. BARNES, supervisor, vocational department Illinois School)

Conditions have changed since I accepted this assignment and made my preparation to propose a national vocational school for the deaf because by appeal for action now follows rather than precedes the action of the convention on resolutions. I beg your indulgence to allow me to depart from my prepared address in the interest of unity and for the good of the deaf to appeal to the convention to support the resolutions which were passed.

I believe it proper, however, to mention here that many of us still believe further action will be necessary before the questions which I will propose can be satisfactorily answered.

Let us then consider what alternative courses have been proposed and are still available for your future action in case the machinery which has now been set in motion fails to function properly.

Let me say further that of the alternatives which I shall bring to your attention I am the author of only one, though I believe several of the others contain possibilities for much good for the deaf.

We will consider, first the problems which bring us here, then the alternative solutions, and last a national vocational school.

Someone has said, "Any fool can ask questions but it takes a wise man to answer them."

With this quotation in mind, you may decide whether the questions which I bring to your attention are pertinent. You may decide whether, in consideration of the suggestions which will follow, we are, all of us together, wise enough to produce answers. Can we not, all together, produce answers which will result in accomplishments much more satisfactory to employers of the deaf, to ourselves, to the Nation as a whole, and to our deaf friends than the situation which now gives rise to the following questions?

1. Are not all of us, classroom teachers, supervisors, principals, superintendents, and friends of the deaf, vitally interested in helping with whatever is necessary to develop in our pupils the character and ability to be good, contented, independent, loyal, and happy citizens?

2. Is it reasonable to expect people who are deaf to become good, contented, independent, loyal, and happy citizens with educational opportunities which are, with a few exceptions, briefer and grossly limited with respect to variety, quality, and extent compared with opportunities afforded hearing people?

3. Would it be reasonable, even, to expect the desired result within the same period required for the normal hearing person when a very large portion of the early years of training the deaf is given for the purpose of making up, in part, ability to communicate, which comes naturally to the hearing before they enter the first grade?

4. Is it not true that the difficulty of our task increases in direct proportion to the degree and time of hearing loss so that with the very deaf and the congenitally deaf our present facilities are most completely inadequate and unavailable to fit our pupils to make the most complete use and obtain the highest possible development of their remaining faculties and abilities?

5. Isn't it true that the greatest possible kindness to a handicapped person is to help him learn to make the best possible use of his remaining faculties, to help him "gather up the fragments" and "let nothing be lost"?

6. Should not our national policy, as educators of the deaf, be to help every deaf person develop his abilities to the highest possible degree, even as this is the policy of every Christian family?

7. In all this wide country is there any place or means now existing which assures all the deaf a proper learning environment and facilities for developing, to the highest possible degree, that wide range of abilities which remain though hearing is lost?

8. Is it not true that deaf people are successful in an infinitely wider range of skills, trades, agriculture, and industry than they are taught in any of our schools?

9. Isn't it true that these numerous but widely scattered examples of deaf people who are successful in many and varied activities in spite of the lack of training facilities in our schools should inspire us to do more?

10. Is this not more obviously true in view of the fact that the advanced training, which they obtained largely as a matter of chance or family connection, is being more and more systematically provided for the hearing, leaving the competition for the deaf correspondingly more difficult?

11. Isn't it true that these sporadic opportunities for advanced vocational training for the deaf usually come only after months or years of idleness and defeat which leave an irreparable imprint of inferiority, defeatism, and poverty on many of the deaf and cause many unfortunate indirect reactions and complexes which result in unfavorable public opinion toward the deaf?

12. Isn't it true that all of us learn most effectively as we are placed in a proper learning environment? Do we not learn best when we realize our need of knowledge and skills; when we have the opportunity to learn what we want to know; and when we are assured that our opportunity to learn will be carried to the point from which we can make profitable use of our knowledge?

13. To what extent do any of our elementary and largely academic schools provide all these factors for successful learning?

14. Would not our pupils be happier, less easily discouraged, more purposeful, and more effective if we could assure them, with greater conviction, that their education could be continued under desirable conditions to make it fully effective?

15. Would not each of us be happier, more effective teachers and educators, if we knew the jobs which we were starting in our elementary schools could be continued to their logical conclusion?

16. Can the situation be remedied in any of our present schools?

17. Can we provide, at one and the same time, the correct place and environment for elementary academic knowledge and highly specialized advanced vocational skills and technical training?

18. Does the minute regulation, the attention to play, study, recreation, social, and moral development for children from 4 to 18 fit in with a program of full-time activity in industrial, agricultural, or technical services in which self-control, reliance, integrity, and dependability must be developed in connection with an 8-hour day and a properly selected recreational outlet to counterbalance the requirements of the job? Is not a school with such a program for young adult pupils the greatest present lack in our profession?

19. Can we equip our present schools to coordinate a large variety of job experiences with related subject matter?

20. Do any of our existing schools have enough pupils of suitable age to justify the expenditure necessary to provide effective training in the variety of trades, agriculture, and technical services which would be necessary to provide all the individuals among our pupils with the training which they need, want, and by which they could profit?

21. But, taken altogether, do we not have more than enough deaf pupils of a proper age to justify an expenditure sufficient to provide these facilities to the extent demanded by the employment market in these various occupations, even to an extent which would enable all our young deaf people to capitalize their potential abilities to the highest possible degree and to be a material aid to the productive forces of our country both in normal times and during emergencies?

22. Would any of us, who have normal hearing children, willingly exchange the opportunities which are available for them for those limited educational opportunities which are available for the deaf, even if their hearing were to remain unimpaired and only the educational opportunities exchanged?

23. Are we not fully agreed that if there is a possible reasonable, just, and effective solution which would provide improvements over the existing defects which your honest answers to the foregoing questions will surely reveal, it should be found?

24. Are we not agreed that it is our pleasure and our duty as educators of the deaf and as citizens to facilitate and speed such a solution to the best of our ability?

There are innumerable questions which can and will be asked. We are educators of the deaf and citizens of a democracy. As such, we are doubly responsible for the answers, for finding solutions suitable both for solving these problems for the deaf, for promoting the good of our country and the preservation of its democratic institutions.

Therefore, because I know that such solutions exist, solutions based on principles of fair play such as Dr. J. W. Jones of Ohio heralded before my time, solutions which many of you here have helped to

develop, solutions which you may study and improve, I appeal, with confidence that we continue our search for solutions which are best suited to solve the educational problems of the deaf and to demand action on those which we may finally agree are best.

Thus, with determination to overcome all obstacles, we may better serve in our capacity as educators of the deaf. Thus, we may better assure the preparation of our young people for the real jobs of life. Thus may we help to "gather up the fragments that nothing be lost." Thus we may give the deaf the privilege of serving their country and the cause of democracy more completely by supplementing and improving the available force of skilled and technical productive workers upon whom so much of the welfare and vitality of our democracy depends.

POSSIBLE SOLUTION OF THE PROBLEM

1. Establishment of a national school of trades, agriculture, and technical training for the deaf, as proposed in the Illinois Advance, February 1940, and since further described.

2. Continuation of present haphazard, poorly planned, opportunistic practices, mingling industrial arts and vocational education and practice.

3. Persuade our State universities to take over the job of advanced vocational education of the deaf.

4. Each State school for the deaf independently to offer a complete variety of vocational training opportunities.

5. Establishment of separate vocational schools by each State.

6. Establishment of sectional vocational schools.

7. Depending on the rehabilitation departments of each State, if any.

8. Combine services of State and Federal rehabilitation departments.

9. Establishment of complete high-grade training in one or two vocations by presently established schools, then exchange pupils.

10. Persuade Gallaudet College to expand to provide for all needs in the field of advanced education.

11. Move Gallaudet College to some industrial city.

12. Establish summer sessions to permit postgraduate students to return to the State schools and take advantage of their (very limited) facilities in order to correct or supplement the training which we now give.

THE RELATION OF ELEMENTARY AND STATE SCHOOLS AND THE PROPOSED NATIONAL VOCATIONAL SCHOOL WITH RESPECT TO THE CONFLICTING OBJECTIVES OF ADVANCED VOCATIONAL EDUCATION (JOB TRAINING) AND INDUSTRIAL ARTS INDUCTION

We are in close agreement on at least one point. That is the senselessness and injustice of expecting our State schools, burdened, as they are, with the primary and elementary problems of academic general education, religious, social, moral, and physical upbuilding, to do a reasonable job of advanced vocational education and placement.

The term "advanced vocational education" is used advisedly, since so much that is really nothing more than an activity program to broaden the general knowledge, develop the character, or even to use

our pupils for the purpose of reducing the maintenance cost of our institutions, has passed for years under the head of vocational education.

I do not say that all this is lost motion from the standpoint of vocational education. It is helpful and frequently leads up to vocational education which is successful, but the attitude and the content of our so-called vocational classes are far from complete and satisfactory for most of the specific jobs in industry or agriculture which hold the brightest promise for most of our deaf pupils.

It is that full and complete training in an environment conducive to the attitude and point of view of workers on specific jobs in any given industry, incorporating the complete technique of these jobs to a degree satisfactory to employers with sufficient speed, skill, and dependability to enable employers to profit by hiring workers at a prevailing wage which is the core of advanced vocational education.

There are many elements which enter into the job which are distinctly contrary to the factors which are essential for the best elementary, general, or industrial arts education. That is why I insist that we should develop a proper place and time for these advanced phases of vocational education which do not fit into our elementary schools, so that we can avoid these conflicts of purpose without constantly bearing a feeling of guilt because so many pupils leave our schools not fully prepared for the real jobs of making a living and with a probable loss of several years before any final satisfactory adjustment is made—if it ever is.

The objectives of industrial arts training with which our State schools should be primarily concerned are quite different. They properly include just sufficient knowledge of various trades and skills to enable pupils to understand their place in life, to keep them usefully and happily occupied, to teach them respect for other workers, for machines, and tools and all kinds of constructive and useful activity, to avoid the possibility of being hopelessly lost and confused when confronted with the necessity of doing things for themselves or other people, to develop resourcefulness and character.

These things are useful as a background for vocational training. They are part of many jobs. Keeping the room clean may be a part of a chemist's job and contribute largely to his success and safety from accidents, but it does not make a chemist. In fact, ability to clean a room is far from the whole job of being a janitor.

Now, these are just a few of the points about which we can probably all agree; in fact, I much prefer to talk about the thing wherein I know we do agree, but it is time to get things done.

If any of you have better solutions, better answers, to the problem of releasing State schools from the problems of completing the job of advanced vocational education than my proposal for a national school of trades, agriculture, and technical training for the deaf, it is time for you to make them known.

If you will be patient just one more minute, I should like to read a paragraph from a letter I received from Dr. Tom L. Anderson December 11, 1940. He says some things so much better than anyone else. You may see for yourselves how closely we agree on these fundamentals.

I use this with Dr. Anderson's consent, with the understanding that it is not necessarily to be taken as approval of any plan of mine.

Your recent *Annals* article expressed what has long been my own conviction; namely, that there is a serious gap between the school and the job, which must be filled if we are to prepare the deaf for definite jobs. I have never had much faith in this hue and cry that it is the duty of the State schools to fit the deaf for employment, and to find jobs to put them in—this notion that the success of a State school for the deaf is to be measured by the number of its pupils it places in employment. There is no common sense behind this motion, taking the interval as the time we have in which to give the deaf student practically everything he gets before graduation, or before he drops out; education, religious, moral, physical and all—an undertaking in which we have not the active aid of other special agencies which cooperate with the schools for the hearing, the home, the church, and practically all the community. That we do as much as we do for the average deaf child is the real miracle. That we don't accomplish the impossible is not ground for charging the schools with serious shortcoming. We can only lay the ground work within the time we have these young people. In the face of this, I protest that we are not being honest when we claim that in addition to everything else we can "fit the deaf for a job, and find it for him." We do, in some instances, to be sure. But we might do a much better job of it if we quit temporizing with vocational training by trying to cram it down the necks of immature children; if we concentrated upon academic education, and social training first, then when the pupil reached maturity we transfer him, as you recommend in effect, to an environment wholly concerned with the serious business of preparing him for a specific job. Only then can we honestly utilize the services of a placement officer.

HOW A NATIONAL SCHOOL OF TRADES, AGRICULTURE, AND TECHNICAL TRAINING WOULD SOLVE OUR PROBLEMS

It is with the above defects in our vocational training program in mind that a solution, a proposal for a national school of trades, agriculture, and technical training for the deaf has taken positive form and bids us to judge if it is not the best solution for all the difficulties which have caused our numerous failures.

This solution, this national school of trades, agriculture, and technical training for the deaf, could provide the means of eliminating our failures of the past because it has been planned, it is being planned, and it will continue to be planned to create an ideal situation, an ideal school with the ideal facilities, teaching staff, atmosphere, location, friends, and cooperating associates in industry, agriculture, business, labor, and the professions to do the job which is required.

Cynics may deride the prospects of a school, an enterprise of a practical nature being built upon plans, dreams, or ideals. Yet the world has yet to see any great good come from any enterprise which grew, like Topsy without a keystone of planning to achieve ideals—a keystone of dreams, if you like. At any rate those of us who honestly desire improvement and constructive progress will certainly be disappointed if we look to cynicism for leadership and a plan.

What have we, what can we plan to do with this national school of trades, agriculture, and technical training for the deaf?

Through the medium of the proposed new school provision could be made for the following benefits:

1. Pupils could be assembled for advanced vocational education in numbers sufficient to permit organization of all the facilities essential to doing the job well.

2. Such a national institution, with students numbering in thousands, through its various activities, could focus the attention of the Nation on the abilities of the adult deaf and the variety of means best calculated to overcome their difficulties.

3. The specially trained teachers and variety of special equipment which are increasingly essential to advanced vocational education could be made available in such a school with the expectation of efficient use and without the waste in duplication which would be unavoidable in providing a semblance of such a variety of facilities for trainees as they are now scattered over the whole country.

4. In the interest of efficiency and economy it is obvious that such a school would operate 12 months in the year. Thus we could provide at all times full training facilities for any and all deaf trainees or workers in need of acquiring new skills. We could provide these for all according to their needs and their ability to profit by them.

5. Positive productive skills, their related habits, subject matter, relations between employees, employers, and the public. Matters of good citizenship would be the chief concern of teachers, pupils, and administrations alike in the proposed school—all this in contrast with the elementary subject matter, objectives, and practices of perhaps all present schools.

6. Superior development of abilities and faculties which remain after hearing is gone, preparation for real jobs of life, would be the primary objectives of our proposed new school. These in contrast with the usual present emphasis upon mitigating the special difficulty and handicap of the deaf, i. e., verbal communication, and upon fulfillment of dubious requirements for success dictated by college entrance boards and accrediting officials.

7. Providing a crystal-clear entrance to the real environment and conditions of life as they contrast with the frequently contrary conditions of school life would be a primary function of our school. By maintaining direct contact with employers of all kinds in the environs of a populous center, such as St. Louis, where the school should be located, providing for cooperative apprentice training in all lines of work for which our trainees prove adaptable, by encouraging employers to set up vestibule training classes when special equipment is required which it is impractical to duplicate in the school; in other words—for a few months or a few years, whichever proves most practical, to introduce a little real industrial life into the school and a little school life into industry until our pupils learn to adjust to industry and until the employers and public learn their abilities and their value.

8. Clarification of objectives and practices, planning every course to meet the exact requirements of real jobs and life situations should result. This requisite characteristic of vocational education contrasts with general information and general habit development which is characteristic of industrial arts training suitable for the adolescents in our present schools. The mature objectives of vocational education should be helpful from the standpoint of pupils, teachers, and administration.

9. Superior classification could be achieved in our proposed school due to the fact that all pupils would have achieved or closely approached biological maturity to the extent of serious interest in acquir-

ing the means and ability to support themselves. They would be studying to learn to do what they most wished to do, with opportunities according to their needs and abilities.

10. Serious enterprise would predominate in such a school where pupils, teachers, and administration all understand the purpose to be vocational education for real jobs producing the world's goods and services.

11. The proposed school would be completely equipped and planned to help each individual develop his abilities to the highest possible degree.

12. The training in this school and in the plants where cooperative job training contrasts were made would be carried to the point such that the trainees could secure and hold employment.

13. The contacts of this school through its contracts for cooperative apprenticeship training in the rear labor market would assure that the training actually met the market demands for each occupation for which training was offered.

14. The content of the courses could be determined by and in consultation with masters of all the occupations taught. This matter would be particularly facilitated in a school located in the environs of a large center of typical and diversified industry and agriculture such as St. Louis, Cincinnati, Kansas City, Omaha, Chicago, or Louisville.

15. Cooperative job-training contracts with industries of all types would assure that pupils or trainees would receive training in habits of thinking and manipulative habits necessary in their chosen occupations since all such training would be concluded with actual apprenticeship on the job.

16. By the same expedient it would be assured that trainees would receive sufficient repetitive training to fix right habits of thinking and doing in the experiences of their chosen occupations.

17. For the purpose of securing well-qualified teachers, all the facilities of the Federal Civil Service Commission and merit system would be available. The opportunities for service in such an institution would certainly make teachers with the highest qualifications available.

18. The administration of the proposed school, planned for the specific purposes herein set forth, could under civil service obtain the services of officials qualified to direct all essential activities essential for the end in view. The administration could be much more complete than any State school, including placement and advisory officers to act as intermediaries between the school and cooperating industries for the purpose of arranging training facilities and direct connections with the welfare departments or employment and rehabilitation officers in every State.

19. The funds available for such a school would be sufficient for providing facilities for any type of training suited to the desires, needs, and abilities of any of the trainees, far in excess of what could be made available for the limited number of advanced vocational pupils in any State school. With the advanced nature of the training and the additional productive ability of older pupils—together with the mutually helpful arrangements which could be made for cooperative apprentice training in varied local industries together with greater efficiency of 12 months' operation for the school, it should be expected

that the per capita cost of this training would be considerably less than for equivalent training in our present schools.

20. Considerable benefits are to be anticipated in this proposed school from the fact that the school is planned to facilitate the processes of advanced vocational education in full harmony with the most advanced conceptions of the laws of learning.

21. Offsetting one of the major difficulties arising from deafness, i. e., limitation of fields of opportunity due to difficulties in oral communication, the proposed school should open for all the deaf almost the whole field of opportunities for which the deaf in any section of the country have proved themselves to be adapted. The mobility, the availability, and the utility of deaf workers would be greatly increased by concentrating their vocational education and the placement offices all at the location selected as a job-training center for the deaf.

The advantages of such an arrangement would be considerable for the deaf, for industry, and for the country as a whole.

22. In organization and clarity of purpose the proposed school would have a far-reaching advantage over most of our present schools. Fitting abilities to opportunities is always an interesting and productive procedure. In contrast to the haphazard facilities and procedures which present schools have, the prospect is comparable to the burst of dawn.

23. In psychological effects the opportunities opened by the proposed school should prove as welcome as an oasis to the thirsty wanderer in the desert.

Hundreds of deaf boys and girls, men and women, who have been discouraged will see new meaning in life, the opportunity to establish themselves in the ranks of contributing members of the community and to express their creative impulses in ways best suited to them and most likely to win the lasting appreciation of their hearing and deaf friends alike.

24. All whose responsibility it is to prepare the deaf for specific jobs in real life would be greatly benefited in the knowledge that in this national job training center for the deaf we could look together with our young pupils to a place where we knew the facilities existed with which the job could be completed. No longer would we need to strain our faith in casual opportunities which too frequently have proved only temporary and available only for the most gifted pupils or those to whom the handicap of deafness was partial or delayed inception.

Against all these advantages to be anticipated for the proposed National School of Trades, Agriculture, and Technical Training for the Deaf no legitimate obstacle has been raised. Neither does any substitute for the present planless chaos in advanced vocational education for the deaf offer nearly such complete advantages or in any way reduce the ultimate cost to the public.

In 2 years since the proposal took approximately its present form only the cost of building and maintaining the school and the cost for transportation of trainees to and from the school have been raised as serious objections.

As to the first, is there an educator who does not believe that the economic, social, and moral costs of even 5 abortive years of idleness, semi-idleness and failure for these young people would far exceed the

cost of efficient training? Such a one would do well to study the costs of idleness and crime.

The matter of transportation costs is even easier. Many teachers at the Fulton convention this summer will spend more for transportation than the average pupil in the National Training Center for the Deaf would need to spend in 3 or 4 years. To divide these facilities again would multiply the cost of maintaining the opportunities for the deaf.

Need any more be said? This proposed National School of Trades, Agriculture, and Technical Training for the Deaf will some day be reality. For the children in our schools and classrooms—more specifically for those who have recently left, its reality depends on you and me. The public will accept our decision in the matter of its necessity. Upon our enthusiasm and work the issue hangs.

For the young deaf people, to whom our conclusions are most important, the issue must be: Is a National School of Trades, Agriculture, and Technical Training for the Deaf just another mirage, or is it to be a new oasis of opportunity bringing, so far as are within our means, greater equality with their hearing brothers, and to all of us a new proof of the blessings which humanity can anticipate from the institutions of political freedom and democracy?

Mr. FUSFELD. Our next topic, dealing with the matter of health and physical education, will be treated by Mr. George W. Harlow, director of physical education of the Mount Airy School.

(Mr. Harlow in his address considered mainly the application of the points brought out in his report, during the morning session, on the formation of a National Advisory Council on Health, Physical Education, and Athletics. See page 317.)

Mr. FUSFELD. I am sure we are all very grateful to Mr. Harlow for the work he has given to this problem and for his explanation of his plan before this group.

We have by this time had the opportunity to sample many of the fine things Fulton has to offer. One of the things for which Fulton is noted is famed Westminster College. Westminster College, I understand, is the oldest liberal arts college for men west of the Mississippi River. It has a distinguished faculty and the college enrolls only men of worthy character and ability, keeping before them the Christian ideal. We know that is more than a slogan. We know that because Westminster College has given to our profession some of our finest men, men who have at all times exemplified the highest ideals of life.

This afternoon it is indeed our great privilege to have with us the president of that very noted college, who will speak to us on the Role of Religion in an Education for Character Development. We are very glad to have with us Dr. Franc Lewis McCluer, president of Westminster College. [Applause.]

THE ROLE OF RELIGION IN AN EDUCATION FOR CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT

(Dr. FRANC LEWIS MCCLUER, president, Westminster College, Fulton, Mo.)

Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen, I assure you that it is a pleasure to speak to this convention on the Role of Religion in an Education

for Character Development. This is a subject in which I know you are interested. As teachers of the deaf you have shown your interest in education intended to develop fine character as well as skill.

I appreciate the generous words that have been said about Westminster College. We are proud of the distinction of having sent more men into the profession which you represent than any other college in the land, with the possible exception of Centre College in Kentucky.

I shall enjoy speaking to you about this subject because I believe it is vital to effective education. By way of introduction, allow me to say that character ought to be the end of education. But let us not offer an interest in the development of character as an excuse for failure to provide the equipment and the instruction requisite to the development of fine skills.

We are concerned with the training of man's hands, with the training of his eye, with the training of his mind. We cannot separate the training of one's hand, or eye, or mind from the development of his character. Whether we think of character development as the end of education or not, we find that personality is one. It is impossible to divide a man up into his mind, and his hands, and his heart, and train the one without exercising any influence at all upon the others. And so, education is bound to have some influence upon character. Many of us who believe that character as well as skill should be one of the primary ends of education believe that the best foundation for high character is religion.

The history of our race gives us abundant evidence that the best way in which to develop a great and generous and useful character is to fill the soul of the individual with a loyalty to great religious truth. We cannot cultivate the human conscience more safely than on the basis of Christianity. I shall speak this afternoon of the Christian religion as an aid to the development of character in an educational program.

With this introduction, I shall try to relate that religion to certain aspects of character development which I think we shall agree are related to our educational programs.

If one is to have a great character, a character that will make his life useful and beneficent, rich and happy, and fruitful for the community as well as for himself, he must have acquired some self-respect. We shall agree, shall we not, that the character one possesses is related to the idea one has of himself? One of the most important things for youth to discover is the opinion that he has of himself. I am sure you understand that I am not suggesting he ought to think of himself more highly than he does of anybody else. But he must respect himself.

"What do you think of yourself?" is one of the most important questions a youth may ask himself. The delinquent boy who, having served a term in a State reformatory, exclaimed, "I shall join the Army, where I can find wine, women, and song without risk of arrest," may have revealed little knowledge of the role of an American soldier, but what a revelation of himself he included in a few words. He thought of himself, you see, as a strong young animal, proud of its strength, seeking physical thrills and satisfactions without any sense

of responsibility to the community, to himself, or to his Creator. One's character is always the product of one's idea of himself. Only the self-respect that grows out of an appreciation of the dignity of the human soul is sufficient foundation for the building of a fine character.

And just here the role of religion has decisive significance. Christianity insists on the supreme value of the individual, because each individual is a soul born of God's spirit and capable of doing God's will. Appreciation of the dignity of the individual, then, brings self-respect without scorn for any other man. Such self-respect is not only the basis of an individual character that is beautiful and good; it is also the basis of our democratic way of life.

If we believe in the dignity of the human spirit, we believe that each person, whatever his race or occupation or background, has something to contribute to our social health, for, you see, each has within himself a spark of the divine. Therefore, we would give each an opportunity to make his peculiar contribution, and we must guarantee freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom of worship, and so on. Because we believe in the dignity of the individual, we know that freedom is his right. And we acknowledge our obligation to use this freedom in a way which shall secure it in a larger degree for the community to which we belong.

Self-respect, then, is necessary to individual strength of character and to the citizenship that will secure our freedom and our democracy. And it is the product of religion and is deepened by worship of Him who gives each spirit its incalculable value.

A second element in character that we shall agree ought to be developed in any educational process is that of self-discipline—self-respect, or, as the psychologist might say, self-discovery, and then, in the second place, self-discipline—not the discipline which the teacher imposes, not the discipline which society imposes, if we are thinking of the development of character and personality, but the discipline which the individual imposes upon himself.

The thing which reveals the character of an individual is not his accommodation to the morals of the community from fear, but the way he lives in freedom, the way in which he restrains impulses which arise within him, the way in which he directs his own tastes and makes his own choices. He is a good man, not because he is restrained from the outside, but because he disciplines himself, because he is restrained from within. To be good means not merely to accept the ethical standards of the community, but to discipline one's self to contribute to the happiness and the strength and the welfare of that community, to discipline one's self so that he can accept handicaps and defeats and still always triumph. That is the second basis of good character.

Religion places on the individual the obligation to discipline his aptitudes and abilities to the utmost. It leads one, not only to discipline talents, but where developed talents are lost, or where handicaps are faced, to waste no time in self-pity, but to discipline one's self with joy and with real confidence in God's desire to use one's life.

Without the capacity for this type of self-discipline, we are not likely to be able to endure life with all of its defeats and its hardships, with all of the doubts that constantly arise in our minds, and make our lives happy and useful, buoyant and not cynical, confident and not

pessimistic. And this kind of self-discipline is the product of faith, of religion, of confidence in God's will and in God's love.

Religion gives us in the first instance that sense of dignity that builds self-respect: It gives us in this second instance that sense of power that prevents defeat.

Then, in the third place, I think we shall agree that great character is based upon something besides self-respect and self-discipline. You, yourselves, evidence the confidence in this idea, as do your colleagues in this profession throughout the country, and that is self-forgetfulness. No character is great until it forgets itself. Self-respect and self-discovery followed by self-discipline, and then by self-forgetfulness are necessary in the development of strong character.

I saw a basketball game not long ago which illustrated this point to me very forcibly. In the warm-up before the game was to be played, one man stood out. He was the best equipped physically for the game; tall, sturdy, fast. Every time he touched the ball, even with the tip of a finger, he seemed to have possession of it. He had an aptitude for the game. He was in fine physical condition. He was always ready to run to the other end of the floor, to practice a little longer than the squad wanted to practice, and never tiring, and yet when the game was played, that boy lost the game for his team.

It was easy for anyone, whether expert in matters of basketball play or not, to see that this boy cost his team the victory. He had discovered his aptitude for the game, he had disciplined himself so that his fine physical condition and his skill commanded the admiration of spectators. But throughout the game, whenever this boy secured possession of the ball, he seemed to glance over his shoulder at the crowd to ask the question, "How do I look? What do the girls in the stand think of me? I am a great basketball player, just look at me." He simply couldn't get his mind off of himself. He was physically prepared to play this game better than any man on either squad, and yet, because he couldn't play it with the joy of abandonment, in his self-consciousness he lost the game for his team.

If one cannot forget himself, whether it be the self-consciousness of timidity or embarrassment that leads him to futility, or the self-consciousness of conceit which leads him to futility, he fails to live up to the best that is in him. He may have discovered himself and acquired self-respect; he may have disciplined himself; he may be ready for great service, but he must forget himself or he will never do that which he is capable of doing. And we get that, do we not, in religion? Man forgets himself as he worships his God and devotes himself to something greater than himself, something worthy of his highest loyalty.

If a character of which we can be proud as educators is to be developed in our schoolrooms, it will be one that respects itself, that restrains and disciplines itself, and then one that forgets itself, and is capable of the devotion that commands all of life. That type of character we get, do we not, from religion?

I would like to speak of several ways in which that religious force may be introduced into the schoolroom. Sometimes we make a mistake in placing too much reliance upon the formal ways of teaching religion. A man's religion cannot be set aside over here and left out of the school-

room. Religion is central in life if it is effective at all, and so the first thing that we may do to help young people acquire this character that is the product of religion, is to share worship with them. In worship together and in acknowledgment of our faith, we shall find strength and we shall teach religion.

Then, of course, there is the necessity of teaching something of the implications of Christian faith as we reach the study of history and social science. But Christianity is not only taught directly by interpretations of philosophy and of history; it is caught indirectly from the spirit of the teacher. There is no such thing as Christian chemistry or Christian mathematics, but it may make a great deal of difference to a young man whether one who teaches him chemistry is a Christian or an atheist.

The third thing we can do is to inform our students about the program of the church, make them aware of the way in which men in this kingdom of the world, but nevertheless citizens of eternity, are attempting to bring to the earth the Kingdom of the Eternal. The church with all of its weaknesses is the instrument through which men seek to establish God's Kingdom, and it ought to be understood by the youth of the land.

And then we shall teach religion as we show a respect for the personality of those we teach. No youth that comes into the classroom of a Christian teacher can ever be unimportant. For that youth is not only the hope of parents, the opportunity of the teacher, but he is the creature of unlimited Deity, a soul of incalculable value, and he is entitled to the respect and deference that one extends to his colleagues. And when you treat students in that way, you secure a response in kind that is of the essence of the teaching of religion in any school.

Of course, the final way in which we teach religion is in what we are. In the school, in its policies, in the personal conduct of teachers who love their students as well as their subject, in their loyalty to high ideals, what the individual teacher is speaks more eloquently than anything he ever says.

Religion is, indeed, the whole of life. Gibran puts the thought beautifully in *The Prophet*.

And an old priest said, "Speak to us of religion."

And he said:

"Have I spoken this day of aught else?

"Is not religion all deeds and all reflection?"

And that which is neither deed nor reflection, but a wonder and a surprise ever springing in the soul, even while the hands hew the stone or tend the loom?

Who can separate his faith from his actions, or his belief from his occupations?

Who can spread his hours before him, saying, "This for God and this for myself; this for my soul, and this other for my body"?

All your hours are wings that beat through space from self to self.

He who wears his morality but as his best garment were better naked.

The wind and the sun will tear no holes in his skin.

And he who defines his conduct by ethics imprisons his songbird in a cage.

The freest song comes not through bars and wires.

And he to whom worshipping is a window, to open but also to shut, has not yet visited the house of his soul whose windows are from dawn to dawn.

Your daily life is your temple and your religion.

Whenever you enter into it take with you your all.

Take the plough and the forge and the mallet and the lute.

The things you have fashioned in necessity or for delight.

For in revery you cannot rise above your achievements nor fall lower than your failures.

And take with you all men:

For in adoration you cannot fly higher than their hopes nor humble yourself lower than their despair.¹

Religion is the basis for the cultivation of a conscience that will develop a great character. It gives the dignity that brings self-respect, the power that gives self-discipline, the faith that brings self-forgetfulness. In teaching religion, as you teach your pupils, you will help this Nation of ours to—

Ring in the nobler modes of life,
With sweeter manners, purer laws,
Ring in the love of truth and right,
Ring in the common love of good,
Ring in the vallant man, and free,
With larger heart and kindlier hand;
Ring out the darkness of the land;
Ring in the Christ that is to be.

Mr. FUSFELD. Dr. McClure, we are grateful to you for this clarification of the real issue. These things you tell us are the vital things; they make the real educational bread. We thank you for this inspiring address.

As there is no further business before us, we stand adjourned until the barbecue this evening.

(Adjournment at 4:15 p. m.)

OUTDOOR MEETING, THURSDAY EVENING, 6 P. M.

Old-fashioned Callaway County barbecue and variety entertainment, Missouri School for the Deaf, athletic field.

FRIDAY, JUNE 27, 1941

DEMONSTRATIONS, 9-9:50 A. M.

Arithmetic: Primary Arithmetic, Mary Bach, Florida School for the Deaf and the Blind; Advanced Arithmetic, Bessie L. Pugh, Florida School for the Deaf and the Blind.

Auricular Training: Mrs. Harvey B. Barnes, Illinois School for the Deaf.

Language: Steps in Teaching Direct and Indirect Discourse, Enfield Joiner, St. Mary's School for the Deaf; Straight Language, M. Adelaide Coffey, West Virginia Schools for the Deaf and Blind.

Preschool and Kindergarten: Dr. Dura-Louise Cockrell, State project technician, nursery schools, Jefferson City, Mo.

Reading: Reading With the Metronoscope, Ruth Moore, Missouri School for the Deaf.

Rhythm: Advanced Work, Honora Carroll and Virginia Hammond, Gallaudet School, St. Louis, Mo.

Speech: Josephine Avondino, A. G. Bell School, Chicago, Ill.

Visual Education: Use of Visual Aids in a Reading Exercise, Susan Christian, Indiana State School for the Deaf.

Section Meeting of Deaf Teachers: Algebra, Max Mossel, Missouri School for the Deaf.

¹ Gibran, Kahlil: *The Prophet*, pp. 87-89. Used with permission of Alfred A. Knopf, New York.

SECTION MEETINGS, 10-10:50 A. M.

SUPERVISION

Leader: Sara E. Lewis, Beverly School; chairman, Harry L. Welty, Nebraska School.

Paper: Reading Readiness, Hannah Oehler, supervising, primary department, Western Pennsylvania School.

Paper: Reading in the Primary Grades, Lillian R. Jones, principal, primary department, Louisiana School.

PRESCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN

Leader: Virginia Rosser, Gough School, San Francisco, Calif.; chairman, Elizabeth H. Rice, principal, primary and lower intermediate grades, Missouri School.

Discussion: Nursery School Philosophy and Technique, Dr. Dura-Louise Cockrell, State project technician, Work Projects Administration Nursery Schools, Jefferson City, Mo., and others.

• SPEECH DEVELOPMENT

Leader: Jennie M. Henderson, Horace Mann School; chairman, Inis B. Hall, head teacher, deaf-blind department, Perkins Institution, Watertown, Mass.

Paper: Speech as Taught to Beginning Children, Josephine Avondino, A. G. Bell School, Chicago, Ill.

Paper: Primary Speech, Ethel M. Hilliard, supervising, intermediate department, New Jersey School.

AURICULAR TRAINING AND RHYTHM

Leader: Marshall S. Hester, California School; chairman, Howard M. Quigley, superintendent, Kansas School.

Paper: A Hearing-Aid Testing Clinic, James H. Galloway, principal, Louisiana School.

Discussion: Dwight W. Reeder, New Jersey School; Alfred Cranwill, principal, Michigan School, and others.

CURRICULUM CONTENT

Leader: Roy G. Parks, Georgia School.

Paper: The Relation of Achievement Tests to the Curriculum, Sam B. Craig, principal, Kendall School.

Paper: Latest Developments in Testing in Schools for the Deaf, Richard G. Brill, principal, Virginia School.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Leader: Dr. Tom L. Anderson, principal, vocational department, Iowa School; chairman, Arthur G. Norris, vocational principal, Missouri School.

Panel discussion, Ways and Means of Obtaining Attributes of Speed, Skill, and Personality. Same panel members as on Tuesday. Report of section leader, Dr. Anderson.

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Leader: George W. Harlow, Pennsylvania School.

Paper: A Program for Physical Education Today—in Preparation for Tomorrow, Donald R. Caziarc, Pennsylvania School.

SOCIAL AND CHARACTER TRAINING

Leader: Rae Martino, Waterbury, Conn.; chairman, Edmund B. Boatner, superintendent, American School at West Hartford, Conn.

Paper: Social and Character Training in a Day School, John F. Grace, principal, Gallaudet Day School, St. Louis, Mo.

Paper: A Supervisors' Association—Aims and Objectives, Eudora Hale, Missouri School.

SECTION FOR DEAF TEACHERS

Leader: G. C. Farquhar, Missouri School.

Paper: The Approach to the Language Problem, James N. Orman, Illinois School.

Discussion: E. S. Foltz, D. Mudgett, and others.

GENERAL SESSION, 11 A. M.

Chairman: Jackson A. Raney, superintendent, Indiana School.

Address: The Socio-Economic Adjustment of the Deaf, Mrs. H. T. Poore, superintendent, Tennessee School.

Adjournment.

SUPERVISION

Leader: Sara E. Lewis, Beverly School; chairman, Harry L. Welty, Nebraska School.

Paper: Reading Readiness, Hannah Oehler, supervising, primary department, Western Pennsylvania School.

Paper: Reading in the Primary Grades, Lillian R. Jones, principal, primary department, Louisiana School.

READING READINESS

(HANNAH OEHLER, supervising, primary department, Western Pennsylvania School)

In this paper I shall attempt to present to you a discussion of the subject of reading readiness from two angles: First, from the angle of visual discrimination and training, and second, from the broader survey of readiness for reading as a thought-getting process.

Since reading is a complex process involving the physical, the social, the emotional, and the intellectual responses of an individual when interpreting written language, we must be sure our deaf children are ready for reading by making a previous study of the "whole child." Our sense-training period affords us this opportunity. It provides for a period of social adjustment, the child to his new environment and the school to each individual child. It provides for a period of check-ups of the children's physical characteristics and intellectual development by the teacher, by the housemothers, by the doctor, by the nurse, and by the school psychologist. Our sense-training program purposes to develop attention or concentration, imitation, and observation. In the reading-readiness period, which follows, we prepare for the recognition and discrimination of the characteristics, appearances, and spellings of syllables, words, and phrases in manuscript writing. We realize that it is one thing to recognize words that are unlike in appearances, but a far more difficult problem to pick out a word from among several other words that look alike in appearances.

This training in visual discrimination is begun in the sense-training period in which we work in a realistic way from the concrete to the abstract. The children match and sort real objects, pictures, silhouettes, and then outlined drawings. It is continued in our reading readiness period which follows. Again the material used for these steps tend from the concrete to the abstract. We begin with objects as units, if the children cannot get the abstract material; then silhouettes on cards, as pictures are too difficult to obtain, then outlined drawings

on the slate by the teacher and later on mimeographed sheets; next abstract symbols or letters of familiar speech syllables and words. The syllables and words used as units are taken from the actual mistakes made by children in their everyday school work in past years. Such syllables as *bar* and *dar* or *par* and *gar*, and such words as *have* and *love*; *girl* and *bird*; *thumb* and *mouth*; *horse* and *house*; *doll*, *ball*, and *bell*; *hair* and *chair*; *skirt* and *shirt* have often been mistaken or used interchangeably by the children.

Since the deaf child cannot, like his hearing brother, associate the written symbols or letters with the oral words used in his spoken vocabulary before entering school—because he has none—we make his first association between reading and speech—the association between the written symbols and the child's familiar speech syllables if he has speech by that time. If not, he is not held up for speech. We suit the method to the child and not the child to the method. Each year our speech work with beginners is deferred later and later in the school year. As soon as a few syllables are known in speech, if possible, the children are held responsible for the recognition of these syllables in reading.

We begin by teaching the children to direct their eyes across the page from left to right in preparation for reading from left to right. Second, they learn to note differences by finding the totally different unit from among a row of units which are all alike except for one which is different. That is, they pick out the one that does not belong. The children may take away, cross off, encircle, or underline the unlike unit. Third, they learn to note likenesses by finding all like units or just one like unit similar to a given unit from among other units. On the slate and on paper the given unit may be separated from the other units in a horizontal row by a line drawn down the left-hand side of the slate or paper. The children may encircle, underline, or color all like units or the like unit similar to the given unit. At first written directions are not used. After the children understand what they are expected to do, the written directions are merely added. Fourth, the children learn to note differences in direction. Silhouettes and profile cards are used. In one set all the units are turned in the same direction but one, which is turned in the opposite direction. The child finds the unit turned in the opposite direction from the others. Objects may be resorted to if necessary. In another set of silhouettes we have pairs of units, each of which is turned in the opposite direction. The child sorts the units into two piles, those facing left and those facing right. This work leads to the observation of direction as to which way symbols or letters are made in manuscript writing and in print, such as *b* from *d* and *p* from *g*, etc. Drawings at the slate and on paper are then used. Fifth, the children learn to complete units with a missing part or parts. This trains in keen observation. Sixth, they learn to reproduce a unit or row of units, which leads later to flash writing or the reproduction of written symbols of familiar syllables, words, phrases, or sentences. Sixth, the children learn to keep in mind incidents in the order of their occurrence, that is, the sequence of events in a story or a happening. This step will be discussed at length later. The last three steps stimulate and train for good memory habits, which is an important phase in reading readiness.

In the syllable stage, we begin as stated above. We change the vowel in the syllables first, keeping the consonant remaining the same. This is the easiest way, as:

ba(r) ba(r) ba(r) bo

The children cross off or encircle boo using colored chalk. Then the consonant is changed and the vowel remains the same, as:

boo boo do boo

The children cross off or encircle doo.

Next, all like syllables, similar to the given syllable, may be found and underlined, as:

bee bee gee bee bee

The given syllable is bee. It is underlined by the teacher. The children then underline each bee syllable found in that row of syllables. Markers are helpful for small children. Or only the one like syllable similar to the given syllable may be indicated, as:

bin gar gir big dir

The given syllable is bir. It is underlined. The children then underline the only other bir syllable found in that row. Then words are used. The speech of these words is built up from the speech syllables, and the meanings and associations learned at another time, or if the children have no speech, their meanings and associations only are known. The words may be used, as:

dog doll dog bag ball dog

The given word is dog. It is underlined. The children then underline the word dog each time that it occurs in the row. This procedure may be carried out with two syllable words and with phrases. Practice in each step is given at the slates and on practice work sheets before the work books are given out. The work book we now use for beginners in the Western Pennsylvania School for the Deaf is called *We Begin to Read*. It was compiled by Miss Thelma Morris, a former teacher of beginners in the primary department of our school. With the help of Miss Theresa Rolshouse, Miss Ruth Bender, and Miss Dale Allen, the latter two being teachers of beginners, Miss Morris compiled this book as a project under the auspices of the Beta Chapter of the Mu Iota Sigma National Fraternity for Teachers of the Deaf. We are very grateful for the interest shown by Miss Morris and these other teachers, as the book satisfies a need felt for some time.

However, since speech taught to beginners in our school is developed more slowly each year, and since we need tools with which to work for the acquisition of language and the mental development of our children, the children are taught from the very beginning of the

school year to recognize and to associate with the proper person the peculiar group of symbols that make up his name. Names are needed to label the children's possessions. Gradually, after the visual discrimination period and after the recognition in speech reading, if possible, colors, number quantities, actions, and objects of furniture in the classrooms are labeled and associated with other groups of symbols or words. Thus the silent-reading vocabulary is slowly increased and very soon goes beyond the ability of the children to speak the words. Practice is given in the recognition of a few of each of these different groups of vocabulary through simply matching the words with real objects and later with pictures of these objects, since practice is needed. Parts of the body and of clothing are presented in phrases from the beginning, as "my arm" and "your arm." This is simple matching.

Action pictures are used immediately to illustrate all isolated vocabulary in natural settings in order to prevent the children from becoming word readers. For instance, for the names of things in the classroom, a teacher might provide a picture of a woman washing a window and one of a boy having broken a window. Complete single sentences are used to describe these action pictures through speech reading, reading, and partial hearing, if there is some present. This is still simple matching or association until several pictures are provided of a woman and also of a boy performing different actions, as:

- A woman is washing a window.
- A woman is sitting on a chair.
- A boy broke a window.
- A boy is asleep in a big chair.

This trains for careful reading. The children must read entirely through the complete sentences to get the correct one. "Catch" pictures and sentences are included. These same words will soon be recognized in such simple requests, as, "Open the window, please," or "Please shut the door," which will be learned as they are needed.

Very soon all isolated vocabulary is combined and recombined to build up our language work. Speech reading, speech, reading, writing, and partial hearing are used to convey language to our deaf children. Thus reading is only one of several mediums used. As soon as our children learn to recognize a few requests, such as, "Roll a ball" or "Spin a top," they soon learn to recognize these same nouns modified by color or numeral adjectives, as:

- Roll a blue ball. Spin two tops.
- Roll a red ball. Spin four tops.

Real actions by the children are supplemented immediately by action pictures in order to illustrate the use of each of these combinations of vocabulary in natural settings. To prevent simple matching and to prepare for careful reading, these pictures are grouped with forethought as described above. All phrases are underlined to make the children conscious of phrases within sentences. New vocabulary often is learned in a natural way. Thus our early vocabulary is well integrated. These pictures are on hand to be used by all the teachers when they are needed and where they are needed.

At the same time that all this planned formal work is going on, our children are learning language in a casual, natural manner. Reading is only one of the mediums used. Incidental happenings are talked

about, heard about, and recorded by the teacher on the slate, and then rewritten on the teacher-made calendar for the younger children or upon the daily newspaper charts for the older children. These accounts may be illustrated at first, in order to link the written form with the events. Gradually composite and then individual news accounts are developed and recorded in individual notebooks. Care is taken that time phrases are used at all times in all language work. Simple sentences are used. Besides having the opportunity of rereading their own accounts and the accounts of their classmates and teachers, the children may reread these same accounts in the Primary News items which are printed in the Western Pennsylvanian Junior. These opportunities provide for functional reading, that is, reading learned through use.

As soon as our young children have some understanding of language—the relationship of one word to another in a sentence and of one sentence to another in a paragraph—other phases for real reading as a thought-getting process are available. Each teacher has a slot chart on her bulletin board in her classroom in which she places built-up stories about a picture which is posted above the chart. These stories may be from two to four sentences long, depending upon the age and the background of her pupils. Each sentence is on a separate flash card and is explained as it is added. These sentences may be removed and replaced by the children to get practice in observing the sequence of ideas used. Flash cards of two or more pictures that have been used may be shuffled, matched with the correct pictures, and rearranged as they were beforehand. Each teacher provides her own bulletin-board pictures and flash cards. Seat devices may be made of similar arrangement, with or without accompanying pictures. Pictures described on the bulletin board allow for language to be used in a natural way. The teacher may use vital language or vocabulary that is pertinent to the class at the time it is needed in the children's own language work. They also provide an approach to paragraph meaning, allow for repetition of sentence structure, provide a means of learning new vocabulary naturally, of fixing known vocabulary, and finally of emphasizing the sequence of ideas.

Another important visual means of emphasizing the sequence of events and happenings in stories is by mounting small pictures about a story upon a long narrow cardboard strip and exposing just one picture at a time as the story is being told in speech reading. Another duplicate set of pictures may be mounted each upon its own small card and arranged in order by the children from memory according to the sequence of events previously told in the story. This is a very important reading-readiness step. It trains the memory to attend to the sequence of events as depicted beforehand. There is a set of these long cards available for use by all the teachers when desired. Such pictures may be obtained from the reading-readiness books listed in the bibliography and from "funny papers" or magazines.

Pictures found in nursery-rhyme books and in story books by the children as the story is being told by the teacher also emphasizes the sequence of happenings or events in stories. It would be ideal for each child to have his own copy of a nursery-rhyme book, but this would be rather expensive. We try to tell a story every day in order to develop an interest in stories and in books. We thus learn that books contain stories.

Another way in which reading may be correlated with other mediums in the presentation of live natural language is in the use of free speech reading. The teacher in talking about objects, not naming them, may say, "Show me something that can swim," and a child might present a toy bird. The teacher then announces, using complete sentences, "No; a bird cannot swim. It can fly. It can walk. It cannot swim." Thereupon, the teacher may use the reading vocabulary charts for "can" and "cannot" in which various subjects of pictures or words may be used. Also she may use the illustration pictures which accompany these charts. She may show a picture of a bird flying, but not swimming. She also may show pictures of people and animals swimming, and then proceed with her lesson in free speech reading. Thus reading is used as a means and not as an end in itself.

Topics about different animals are immediately in order. These are illustrated and written on charts or in big books by the teacher and kept on hand for further reference by the children. Extra vocabulary learned in a functional way is learned as the need arises. The accounts are kept simple and references are made to pictures and data in nature study books to make the accounts more reliable and to let the children know that we go to books for information when it is needed. Topics provide another means for building up paragraphs.

Reading is made real and vital for our older children by the use of timely pictures of present-day news events. This year our children were especially interested in fires because of four or five fires in the vicinity of our school. I told one class about the fires along the eastern coast and about the pictures that were in the newspaper the evening before. I was asked immediately, "May we see?" About 2 weeks after showing them these pictures, Phyllis came to me and said, "Miss Allen told me the water is high. What is the name?" Of course I told about the floods in the nearby towns and the cause of floods. I brought the pictures the next day. Every familiar word under the pictures was noted and the meanings of unfamiliar words were asked for.

Reading given at the time it is needed often clarifies a point when the lesson is being presented in speech reading. This past year in teaching a class I used the word "somebody." When no response was forthcoming, I checked as to meaning, "What does 'somebody' mean?" Howard, a bright-eyed boy, said, "I know—'some money.'" At another time I said, "Who knows?" and several children pointed to their noses. Each time upon my writing the groups of words, one above the other, the fact was brought out incidentally that different sounds and groups of sounds look the same on the lips.

Our children are too young fully to realize that it is the way in which a word is used in a sentence which determines its meaning and that the same word may have several meanings. This broadening out of concepts is just begun in our department and is best brought out through language used in natural situations or experiences. In one month I had used the same word in three different meanings in one class. I first reminded a child not to turn his back to our visitor—first or primary meaning. At another time I asked a child to move back—a backward movement. And again I excused a child from the room and told him please to come right back—a forward movement. Each time I checked as to the children's knowledge of the correct meaning.

This point is reenforced by the quotation by Robert Lane in his book, *The Progressive Elementary School*. Quoting:

The learning of the words is incidental, however, to knowing the meaning of the sentence in which they occur. And that knowing of the meaning is incidental to having had the real experience out of which the sentences grew.

That brings me to the subject of experiences or activity-reading charts. They are composed along the rules of composition. A main topic sentence is used to describe the experience the class has had at a certain time. This topic sentence is elaborated upon by a few simple sentences. At first in the beginning classes, the teacher presents a brightly colored master chart written by herself. The first chart may be illustrated by snapshots of the children taken during the experience. Later pictures from magazines or drawings, made and colored by various members of the class, may be used. Finally charts may be made on colored newsprint, which is very inexpensive, and written in the classroom by the teacher, using dark wax crayons or ink, while the interest is high. Since the aim of these experiences is language from the children themselves, gradually the ideas for the charts may be given by the children and written by the teacher. Finally, individual accounts of each experience may be kept in notebooks. These experiences or activities are different from news in that they may be planned ahead of time. As soon as the children understand future tense, two charts may be used, one before the experience and one after it. Deaf children need rich and varied experiences, such as trips to the zoo, to the airport, to the woods, making candy, sandwiches, and so forth, in order to have rich and varied concepts in preparation for real reading. Paul McKee in the *Thirty-Sixth Yearbook*, part I in the *Second Report on Reading* by the National Society for the Study of Education, says that the reader through the association of the concepts he possesses gets meaning by making it rather than from the printed symbols at which he looks. We only begin to develop concepts in the primary children by having meaningful experiences in the classroom, after school, during Sunday school, and at home.

Preparation is made for the reading of preprimers by definite work on the impersonal use of "I." First real people and toy animals are labeled. Then people and animals in pictures around the room and on the bulletin boards are labeled. Thus when the children are ready for preprimers, they will understand that the "I" in the sentence "I am Sally" refers to the girl in the picture and not to the child reading it. A supply of sets of easy preprimers are on hand in our department. The children enjoy these stories better after they have acquired a questioning attitude about things in general. When a happening occurs in the classroom, ask "Why?" When a happening occurs in a story, ask "Why?" before reading to learn why it happened. Reading in books is not hurried. Gates' Primer and Work Book are used in our two oldest classes. All difficult reading is taken care of ahead of time. (See my paper given June 1935 at the Jacksonville convention.)

Reading is correlated with our acoustic program and also with our number work in realistic language situations. Following directions, dramatizations, drawings, and colorings, and answers to true-false statements about people round about us and then about pictures and

stories are used to check the understanding of reading and to develop the imagination.

It is important to fix the correct spelling of all vocabulary learned, isolated or preferably in a functional way, because there is a close correlation between reading and spelling according to Dr. Gerald Yoakum, of the University of Pittsburgh. The modern trend is toward the studying of the spelling deficiencies in children rather than to their reading disabilities. The remedy often is kinesthetic.

In closing, may I summarize and say: By preparing for visual discrimination in the sense-training and reading-readiness periods; by using manuscript writing and print instead of the cursive form; by learning meanings of vocabulary gradually—just a few at first in isolated form, but used almost immediately in sentences describing pictures of this vocabulary in natural settings; by using reading as just one medium in the acquisition of real live functional language as a means and not as an end in itself; by keeping reading more simple; by having various types of material on hand and ready to be used when needed and where needed; by knowing what to do when a need arises; by setting up situations that will arouse an interest in reading and in books; by building up concepts through actual first-hand experiences; and by the children's beginning to learn that words have more than one meaning, we are providing a readiness for reading in the lives and minds of our primary children.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I. Reading-readiness books:

- A. *MOTHER GOOSE*, published by the American Education Press, Columbus, Ohio, 1938.
- B. *BEFORE WE READ*, published by Scott, Foresman & Co., Chicago, Ill., 1937-40.
- C. *GETTING READY TO READ*, published by E. M. Hale & Co., Milwaukee, Wis., 1938.
- D. *HERE WE GO* (The Alice and Jerry Books), published by Row, Peterson & Co., New York.
- E. *DIRECTION SHEET FOR READING READINESS AND SURVEY RECORD SHEET*, published by Lyons & Carnahan, New York, 1939.

II. Methods of reading and suggestions:

- A. Mrs. Rachel D. Davies, formerly principal in Western Pennsylvania School for the Deaf, for the foundation for our reading program.
- B. Mr. Fred Numbers, Jr., principal in Western Pennsylvania School for the Deaf.
- C. Miss Thelma Morris, B. S., a primary teacher in Western Pennsylvania School for the Deaf.
- D. Dr. Gerald Yoakum, University of Pittsburgh.

III. Books:

- A. *THE PROGRESSIVE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL*, Robert Lane, published by Houghton Mifflin Co., New York, 1938.
- B. *THIRTY-SIXTH YEARBOOK*, part I, The Teaching of Reading: A second report by the National Society for the Study of Education, published by the Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill., 1937.

READING IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

(LILLIAN R. JONES, principal, primary department, Louisiana School)

So much has already been said and written about the teaching of reading in the primary grades that it seems almost presumptuous to offer another paper on this subject in such a meeting as this without

presenting at the same time the results of some intricately detailed research problem. And yet, a careful study of the professional literature made available by the other workers in our special field seems to indicate that there is some need for clarification in our thinking as to the ultimate aims of our instruction at this level. What are our plans and purposes in teaching reading in the primary classes?

Miss Oehler has discussed with her usual insight, thoroughness, and wisdom the matter of reading readiness. I raise the question as to the most economical and effective use of the time set apart for the reading period in our younger classes. Should the energies and efforts of the pupil in the earlier stages of learning to read be directed toward the acquisition of such vocabulary as will enable him to read books? Or will it be more economical and effective in the long run to use the first reading periods as a pleasurable yet systematic approach to language? Should beginning reading be taught as a separate subject, as an end in itself, or should it be utilized as the most effective means of introducing, teaching, and "fixing" the language patterns which the child needs for self-expression in the earlier years? What is the best time to begin the regular use of books in our reading instruction? What rate of progress in reading skills may we reasonably expect from our average classes?

We speak of the language for comprehension, and the language of use, of the language of impression, and of expression. And most of us are already agreed that our nonhearing child should be given what his hearing brothers and sisters have always had—wide, varied, and pleasurable experience in the comprehension of language long before language is expected of him as an expression of his own thought. Our speech reading approach to this problem has been rather uniform—in theory, at least. We have carefully built vocabularies based upon the comprehension of the spoken word, from the very elementary levels, integrating that vocabulary as rapidly as possible into the more complicated language patterns, teaching our children to understand spoken language without formal detailed explanation and build-up of each separate word used in the new pattern. We believe that the same procedure is psychologically sound when used with the printed word.

The word approach to the teaching of reading is wasteful, entirely outmoded, and psychologically unsound for a group of hearing children entering school with real, rich, and varied experience, already more or less skilled in the use of vocabularies varying from 2,000 to 5,000 words, and comprehending the use of a yet larger number. Such children need only learn to recognize the printed symbol for the already familiar word, transfer the visual stimuli to the auditory image, and thence to meaning. But what of the deaf child coming to us with no vocabulary, no language, and no avenue of approach to the understanding of language save the visual?

It has been said that he appears to perceive the printed word better, on the average, than does the hearing child, and our experience tends to bear this out. It has been our observation, also, that the reading of print seems easier for more children than the reading of speech, if the same time be devoted to the acquisition of each skill. While the converse is often true, the generalization, on the whole, stands. And if this be so, the reading approach to language seems

a definite educational implication for us. Our earliest efforts in teaching reading to the deaf child may well be directed toward the acquisition of a core vocabulary and simple language patterns which will enable him first to understand language, then to express himself through that medium.

The vast amount of time and attention directed toward the selection of first-year vocabularies in our various schools for the deaf has resulted in the general practice of teaching in our beginning classes only such words as embody a definite social utility for the pupil within the class. The divergence in content in first-year vocabularies shown in the various published studies is by no means an unhealthy sign, since the core-vocabulary remains so nearly the same. A recent curriculum study in our own school showed the inclusion of several items on our lists regularly which few other schools teach, but such inclusion occurred because of situations which arise regularly each year, stimulating at each instance a desire for expression well within the capabilities of our pupils. This happens, also, in other schools; each school of necessity will find it advantageous to teach certain items which may well be omitted from material taught in other schools.

We submit, however, that since the theory of social utility so definitely governs the inclusion of selected words in our primary outlines, that these same words are important enough to become familiar in print as well as in the speech reading forms. We believe that all vocabulary and forms taught for speech reading should likewise be presented in print. Since the acquisition of language comes to our deaf child through visual instead of auditory stimuli, in preparation for language he should be exposed to the varied stimuli of the isolated word, building vocabulary, as well as to straight language—on his level of comprehension but beyond his ability to use—throughout the primary classes, and be held responsible only for such words and forms as he will regularly use, either in reading, speech reading, or speech.

We believe, for that reason, that all noun charts used in the younger classes should be slot charts, with each pictured object associated with its printed symbol, enabling the pupil to familiarize himself with the print symbols for words, as well as the spoken form. While matching print to the pictured object is by no means pure reading, it does begin the establishment of a sight vocabulary which may be integrated into simple but meaningful reading matter within the first 2 months of regular school progress. The basic noun vocabulary thus taught, combined with a group of simple imperatives, enables the children quickly to learn that printed symbols convey ideas.

The use of the imperative form of the verb to establish the verb concept has been seriously criticized from time to time by certain outstanding leaders within our profession. We, nevertheless, feel that a small set of commands in our beginning classes is still invaluable in establishing the verb concept and is not too confusing for the beginner to use. Children who learn language the natural way—through their ears—respond to auditory stimuli of sentence-words with but little or no attention to the time implication of the verb phrase. For that reason the idea of establishing verb concepts by the use of imperatives, as well as noun concepts by the use of objects,

seems to us to be psychologically sound. We do not advocate, however, the teaching of a long list of formal commands, believing, rather, that our children profit more by the use of less material employed in a larger variety of ways. Someone has said that it is not the number of words which a child can read—in speech or print—but the facility with which he can read a lesser number, combined as variously as possible into more or less complex thought units that governs the measure of our success in the teaching of language comprehension during the first very few years of work.

The first-year child may open a box, a book, the window, a door.

He may walk with a boy, a girl, a woman, or some named individual within the group. He may run to any of the individual above, and to a window, the table, the door, besides. He may get any object in the room for which he has learned the name. Though the actual number of words dealt with in the beginning classes of our school does not exceed 225, our teachers regularly keep and use more than 1,200 separate cards for use in slot charts, and the possibilities for reading combinations with such a set are numberless.

The actual teaching of reading during the first year seems most advantageously done with chart and blackboard work, this common center of attention providing distinct advantage for the young child for several reasons. The focus of attention is definite: one child may learn from the response of another child; and a community of co-operative endeavor, someone has effectively said, is set up and may be easily maintained. But, selected procedures once taught present infinite possibilities for individual seat work of a helpful and constructive nature on even the simplest levels. As early as the third week in school the child may sort lists of nouns and place them under appropriate pictures. "Draw," "Color," and "Put" present a wealth of available practice material involving the use of nouns, descriptive adjectives, as well as adjectives of number and color, and lead, yet later, to the more complicated patterns involved in the use of prepositional phrases, and all this on the level of creative self-expression.

Reading being primarily a thought-getting process most easily, quickly, and enjoyably developed by the reading of a great deal of easy material rather than with the struggling over a much smaller amount of difficult material, one main problem of our schools must be the provision of an ample amount of reading matter on a simple enough level, interesting, yet within the language limits of the deaf child to give sufficient pleasurable experiences in reading. Not, as some have seemed to suggest, that the deaf child has a vocabulary peculiarly his own, but the selection of valuable published reading material when the total vocabulary encompasses less than 500 words is a task that has given most of us real concern. And most of us have found it an economical learning process to move through the primary stages of reading slowly. Many of our really good reader texts published today present too many obstacles too soon for our deaf pupil. And most of us have found that while certain types of obstacles in published materials may be more or less readily hurdled with special explanation, definition, or substitution, the time spent in obviating such difficulty may well be spent to better advantage unless the learning thus gained serves some definite purpose. For this reason we deem it advisable to introduce the regular use of books slowly, supple-

menting the formal reading matter offered in regular printed texts with a large amount of teacher-planned lessons through at least the first 2 years of school.

In the Louisiana School we have found it profitable after the first very few weeks of the second year to divide the time devoted to the teaching of reading almost equally between book work, blackboard work, and seat work. Six preprimers and one or more very easy primers are regularly taught in the book period. The blackboard reading period provides stories, written by the teacher and illustrated by large colored pictures cut from magazines, calendars, 10-cent-store books, or from any other available source. The seat work includes various checks on both of these, and much practice material of the read-and-do type. Both seat work and picture stories are teacher-planned material.

The blackboard lessons seem a very important teaching procedure with us. Centering around definite interests of the children, they offer distinct advantages. A "community of experience and cooperative interpretation" result from such a lesson, furnishing an invaluable means of extending the experiences of the children within the group. Not many of our young children in our State schools have lived widely, even on their own level, but the ingenious teacher can, with care, patience, foresight, and enthusiasm, plus a well-handled reading program, broaden their vicarious experiences appreciably.

Four definite objectives may be served in the presentation of these lessons: (1) A deepening of the impression that reading is a really interesting and pleasurable process; (2) an extension of experience, or the reliving of some happy occasion; (3) a "fixing" of vocabulary or language principles previously occurring in either language or pre-primer lessons; (4), presentation of new vocabulary or language forms in a natural and logical manner.

Such a reading program in the second year furnishes a basis for a much wider use of books in the third year. Beginning with an easy primer, quickly read at the beginning of the year, the children pass to primers which Stone classifies as from medium difficult to hard, and read them readily and with enjoyment. One simple first reader is usually included in the work of this year also. Fourth-year pupils read three first readers in class, and use three others and one of the harder primers as required supplemental readers, discussed in larger units by the class from time to time, but not so carefully taught. Fifth-year instruction entails class work on the second-grade level throughout the year, following the same plan of study of three readers in class, and required reading of others in free time.

We find that this sequence provides for an abundance of practice work in dealing with language forms at a level always somewhat above the level of the language which we expect for expression from our pupils. It has been our experience that our better pupils make immediate transfers from reading to original language, incorporating the language and expressions found in the reading class into work of their own. And since our curriculum in the Louisiana School has been organized on the basis of three preparatory years, then a close adaptation of public school work, our sequence of teaching reading has—for us—been satisfactory.

The current issue of the *Volta Review* carries a very significant letter from a classroom teacher commenting upon the very objectionable habit certain pupils have who turn pages to look at pictures, not to read books. I wish I might say that the slower approach we make to books in the Louisiana School really eliminates such attitudes, but I must confess that we do have such pupils with us as well. We feel, as does the teacher writing, that much handling of difficult books too soon may be responsible in a large measure for the error. We do feel, however, that there is a very definite place on the reading table—or shall we say the book table?—for the scrapbook and the picture book in the first-year class, and for teacher-made books, picture books, and very simple preprimers in the second-year class. Third-year classes should be ready to begin reading simple, carefully chosen books independently, and, from that reading level up, cultivation of the habits of independent reading should be stressed.

As early as 1924 the national committee on reading set forth as the main objectives of instruction in reading the extension of experience, the development of strong motives for and permanent interests in reading, and the development of desirable attitudes and effective habits and skills. To these three paramount objectives, the teacher in our special field should add a fourth: The development of an understanding of and a skill in the use of language. And we believe that the earliest teaching of reading should be planned with this last aim definitely in mind.

PRESCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN

Leader: Virginia Rosser, Gough School, San Francisco; chairman, Elizabeth Rice, principal, primary and intermediate grades, Missouri School.

Discussion: Nursery School Philosophy and Technique, Dr. Dura-Louise Cockrell, State project technician, Work Projects Administration Nursery Schools, Jefferson City, Mo., and others.

The meeting of the section on preschool and kindergarten convened in room 110 of the Advanced School Building, Miss Elizabeth H. Rice presiding.

Miss RICE. We have heard so many good things this week, a feast of good things, seen demonstrations with both the deaf child in the nursery school and the hearing children in the nursery school. We have listened to some interesting programs and discussions of papers, and we are fortunate this morning to have with us one who has specialized and won distinction in this field of education.

It is always wholesome for us to contrast the work with the deaf child with that of the methods and techniques used with hearing children. It is my privilege and pleasure this morning to present to you Dr. Dura-Louise Cockrell, State project technician of the Missouri W. P. A. Nursery Schools, who will talk to us on nursery school philosophy and technique.

Dr. COCKRELL. Thank you, Miss Rice. Whatever has been achieved in our work has been achieved by many people working together.

I want to introduce, first, Mrs. Chester Bennett, who has volunteered as supervisor to assist in our work.

Mrs. BENNETT. Yesterday afternoon, when I was thinking over what to tell you people about the educational aspects of the nursery school, I was suddenly reminded of the little girl named Lucy, whom I used to have in nursery-school groups some years ago. I think so often the children can tell us better about the educational aspects of the program than we can tell you by words. For instance, the little children that you just saw playing, told you a good deal about the educational aspects.

Lucy was a very interesting little girl. She always reminded us of a little bear cub with tiny, deep-set, brown, twinkling eyes, and a very forthright little manner. Lucy was somewhat puzzling to us because she was so defensive in all behavior toward adults. She didn't want us around. Any time she approached play materials, she would call out this way [indicating] "You keep away from me. You are looking at me; you stay out of my way." We didn't understand what was the matter with Lucy at first, but we did feel it was important at school that she feel that she could work without being bothered or without being watched, if she needed that, because she was so tense.

We moved the little easel over in the corner so Lucy could go behind it and paint without anyone seeing her. We moved some block shelves into a corner and put up a screen. For days Lucy retired into her corner and worked by herself. Another thing we did frequently before she started in to work, was to assure her that we were not going to pay any attention to her. We would tell her the jobs we had to do. Gradually, Lucy became less tense and we had fewer and fewer comments from her for us to keep away.

Of course, we wanted to find out why Lucy behaved the way she did. One of the places you try to find out things is in the home and what has happened in previous school experiences. The first time we went to call on Lucy's mother, she laughed about Lucy's coming to school, about Lucy's school experience, because she was just 4. "Of course, Lucy is just playing. It is just Lucy's playtime, to keep her out of mischief until she really begins her education in her first grade."

There was one clue. Mother didn't take education before 6 seriously. The mother told us several stories about funny pictures Lucy brought home, special portraits of mother. There was a strange green head off somewhere, a pink body, and perhaps seven or eight legs sticking out. Lucy brought this into the living room to show the guests. "Mother, see here is your picture," and of course mother thought that was very funny, and so did the guests.

There were some of the clues as to why Lucy behaved defensively toward adults. She thought she was being made fun of when she was really taking seriously her educational activities. After a while Lucy began to trust us in school, and she felt free. Sometimes she would come over and say, "Come and see what I have done." We thought perhaps it was time for mother to come and visit the nursery school. When she came in Lucy sighted her across the room. Her little shoulders were all hunched up and her mouth was set in a firm line. She marched over to her mother. "Mother, this school is mine. It is made for me."

Well, I don't know of any better description that I have ever heard of the educational aspects of the nursery-school program than that description. "This school is mine; it is made for me." Of course, I cannot possibly tell you all the ways in which we try to make the school belong to the child, but I would like to indicate just a few of the things we try to do.

In the first place we plan a daily program for the children to meet their interests, two and three and four, to meet their needs and some of the things we think of in planning that program are, first, the fact that a child needs alternate periods of active play, with quiet activity. So, if you saw our program you would see, along about 10 o'clock in the morning, provision for sitting down quietly and having fruit juice. Perhaps the children go into the toilet or perhaps they lie down and have a little rest. Perhaps on hot days you would see a teacher come out with a story book and sit under a shady tree, and gather a group of children around her.

The second thing we think of in planning a daily program is that children can do a great many things for themselves and love to do it if we let them work at their own speed. Dr. Cockrell spoke of that when the children were giving their little demonstration. We try to give them plenty of time to do things.

Another thing we think of about little children is they need to go directly from one activity to another. It is natural for a child to become very tense and very restless if he is expected to stand in line and wait, if he is expected to wait a long time to take his turn, and so we try to plan the periods so that the child can go directly. For instance, in washing for lunch, only two or three children are taken in at one time. In getting ready for dinner the child takes his plate directly to the table and starts eating. He doesn't wait for the other children to start eating.

The second way we try to make the school belong to the child is that we know, as Lucy's mother did not know, that a child's education begins from the moment he is born and that he is probably a much more efficient teacher of himself in certain areas than we could ever be. He begins right at the moment he is born to learn how to walk even though he is far away from walking at that stage, but he does begin the exercising of his legs and muscles so he eventually can walk. Another way in which the child is an excellent teacher of himself is in building up sensory concepts of size and weight and texture and feeling of things.

We feel that our function is simply to aid and abet that child in his own education. He is the teacher and we give him the materials. Some of the things we do to aid and abet the child are, first, to give him a safe environment so he can explore that environment without our interfering with him. Another thing that we try to do is to make the environment to suit his size. The tables and chairs, small sized, are obvious, but we have little shelves too, so there aren't things tipping out of his reach. We take account of the fact the small muscles of the fingers and hands are not well developed at 3 or 4, and so we give him great big crayons. He can control a big thing better than a little thing. There are a number of other ways in which we try to suit the environment to his size and his abilities. Then we give him a lot of equipment, too, to suit his educational activities.

During that preschool period the child is greatly engaged in developing the big muscles of his arms and legs and back. If you have ever watched a child in a situation which was not set up for him, for instance, in an adult household or out on the farm, you would notice if the child doesn't have anything else to climb on he will make for Daddy's overstuffed chair. If he is out in the country and sees an apple tree with low branches, he will head for that, or if there is a stepladder anywhere near he will head for that. He is teaching himself, exercising his own educational system.

We try to give him many things to climb on, many things to pull and push, many things he can do tricks on by himself.

A fourth way in which we try to make the school belong to the child is in giving him creative play materials; that is, raw materials such as pebbles and clay and paint and blocks and a number of other things of that sort. Then we leave him alone with them. We try very hard not to suggest to him, "Now, Johnny, why don't you make a nice doggie out of the clay," and so forth. Perhaps Johnny is not ready to use the clay that way, and we leave him alone. We see quite a distinction in the way in which the children first handle clay. They manipulate it and pack it. Sometimes they make thousands and thousands of pancakes before they make anything else. They don't get tired of it. We let them do that without interrupting. Another characteristic is that the child then takes the clay and makes a snake. [Demonstrates.] They make thousands of snakes next. Perhaps some day a child will make both a pancake and a snake and get them stuck together. They may look at it and say, "Oh, an umbrella, or a toadstool," or say, "That is a man," for after all that is the beginning of the way we look. It is rather a crude representation but at least it is that.

When he makes that and calls it a man we just accept that that is his idea of a man. That is as far as he can reproduce it so far. So far, I have told you how the teacher stays out of the picture, and all of the things we try not to do. But we do have a very active function as well. In the first place, we help the children clarify experiences. Very often children can express themselves so well in language because they seem to understand so well and we give them credit for having things much clearer than they really do. A good example of that is a little fellow named Andy who built a stable out of blocks. He made a very beautiful stable. He had water troughs for the horses and separate corn bins for each horse. He insisted, however, that each horse should have his own bed and pillow to sleep on, and he put them in. The teacher made no comment on that. That was as far as Andy could reproduce the horse's way of living. He got it a little bit mixed up with his own way of living.

The wise teacher will make an opportunity pretty soon and take the children to a stable. She will say, "Let's go see where the horses sleep." In that way she could heighten and clarify an experience which the children had already had. Then, we are quite active, too, in giving a child new experiences. We help him to listen for things in the environment. We help him to hear more clearly, in a sense, if a man way over in the next block is hammering on a piece of iron. That frequently makes an interesting sound, or if a train way down is approaching, we will get the children to listen for that kind of thing, too.

There is one educational aspect that I haven't spoken of at all. Of course, the nursery school is usually the child's first experience in group living with his contemporaries. It is the beginning of his training later in learning to live with his roommate in college, of learning to take his place in the business world. The teacher has a very important function in helping the child to learn to live happily with other people, in learning to make adjustments to other people. It seems important to me that our children grow up to be responsible citizens.

Dr. COCKRELL. We have very much appreciated your coming, Mrs. Bennett, and more than that we appreciate the things you actually do for the children. That is an important phase, certainly, of our children's growth. We think of the fact that they are growing physically and any of you who are responsible for the growth and health of little children know that that is a complicated duty also.

We also have with us here Mrs. Joenita Elijah, who is assistant technician in the Missouri W. P. A. nursery schools. She is the expert in nutrition, and she will explain to us how that is an important item in the nursery plan.

Mrs. ELIJAH. One of the important things done by the W. P. A. nursery schools in Missouri is to provide well-balanced diets for the children. This morning you saw the children drinking their orange juice. That is a daily feature in this school. They either get orange or tomato juice and cod-liver oil. At noon they get one hot nutritious meal. This noonday meal provided for the children is planned so as to include all the daily food elements necessary for growing children.

For example, if we were to go into the nursery school at Columbia, the group of colored boys and girls you just saw, you might find this menu being served: Scrambled eggs, buttered green beans, scalloped potatoes, celery sticks, whole wheat bread sandwiches, stewed prunes, and milk. This menu was planned so as to include the daily food intake. This intake in the nursery schools is very similar to the one set up in the Nation by the home economics meeting in Washington. We follow this so the children will have one pint of milk per day, milk to drink at the noonday meal and also either in the morning or in the afternoon. Then, milk is used in the preparation of several of the foods. Probably the children get more than 1 pint of milk. They also get one egg or its equivalent in liver, fish, or meat; an uncooked, leafy green vegetable, a cooked vegetable. They get fruit or a dessert flavored with fruit. Sometimes they get a starchy food, such as potato.

This daily intake is planned so as to include all of the food elements necessary for growing children. By food elements I mean such things as carbohydrates, which supply energy or fuel and serve us as a coal does a stove. Going back to the menu, potatoes are a good source of carbohydrates, in bread and in small amounts in other foods in the menu. Then, fat is another food element that is necessary. It also is an energy or fuel food. We would find that in butter used in green beans and butter used in the sandwiches, and, of course, in small amounts in the eggs. Then we include protein, which is the building food, very important to our preschool children. We would find that in the eggs and milk, two excellent sources of protein.

We have to consider vitamins. They are known as protectors of the body against certain diseases. Fruits and vegetables are two excellent sources of vitamins. For instance, that is one important reason for giving fruit juice and cod-liver oil, fruit against scurvy, cod-liver oil containing vitamin D against rickets.

Our menu also includes minerals and water which are known as the regulators of the body. So, you see, we do provide well for children when it comes to food elements.

In planning menus you have to consider other things. For instance, I think you recall the little 2-year-old in here last. She is very new to the nursery school and probably is just learning to eat certain foods, and probably some of the foods which are being served in the nursery school she does not have at home. We make our meals just as attractive as possible to entice the appetites of these youngsters. In doing that we have to consider color in the meal.

I think all of us agree if we sit down to a meal with absolutely no color, or of all one color, it doesn't look very attractive to us. We do try to have a pleasing color combination in our menu.

Then, we have to consider flavor. Flavor, of course, is very important to young children who are learning to like a new food or one he is not used to. The first bite that is taken into the mouth, if it is pleasing, of course, is going to be eaten; if it is not pleasing the child is going to refuse it. You certainly have to be very careful in the preparation of foods.

The third thing you have to consider in planning a menu is texture. Texture, of course, is very important to the young child, because he is developing his gums and we want to provide a crisp, chewy food for this gum development. We also want to provide some soft food, so we should have a good combination of soft and chewy and crisp food. So, you see, the dietist in the nursery school really has a job in planning the daily menus as to food intake and to make the meals as attractive as possible.

Now, thinking of children themselves, when they sit down to the noonday meal they learn a lot of things. First of all they learn good food habits. Meals are served regularly every day at 11:15, 11:25, or 11:30, whatever time the children are in the habit of eating. They are served regularly, so they do develop regular food habits. It helps their digestion to have their meals at a regular time. They are also learning to eat a variety of foods, as for instance, in the menu I gave you. Perhaps tomorrow we will have liver, the next day meat balls, and all of the fresh fruit and vegetables that are now available on the market. So, they are learning to eat a variety of foods. Some of these foods they have never eaten before they came to nursery school. In their homes the amount of money they have to spend is limited, and they want to spend their money where they can get the most. Sometimes the home diets are limited to potatoes and most of the starchy foods.

The third thing they learn to do is feed themselves. We have plates and cups and forks and spoons to fit their size. You have noticed the small tables and chairs. These are used for their noonday meal. They are comfortable to the children, because the children can see over the top of the table and can actually manipulate their

food without having their chins hit the top of the table, or sitting too high. As a youngster I always sat on the Sears, Roebuck or Montgomery Ward catalog to reach the table, but here we have very comfortable chairs and tables for them. Their little forks and spoons are of junior size, and so all of these things together will certainly encourage the children to feed themselves.

The fourth thing our children learn is self-reliance. You noticed this morning that after they finished with their orange juice they carried their glasses over to the table. In some of our schools we have the cafeteria plan of eating. That is, the dietist will serve the plates. Each child comes to the serving table and takes his plate to his own individual place and sits down to eat his food. Coordination is learned by the child in carrying a balanced plate, and he is learning to take his own plate to the table, sit down in a certain place, and assist himself. So, we do teach self-reliance at the noon-day meal as well as good food habits. Thus we feel our nursery school is making progress and playing a large part in the national defense program by saving the health of the children by good food habits.

Dr. COCKRELL. I believe, through this morning's demonstrations and talks of these people who assist in the nursery school, you can see we are considering several things; one is that we are considering the home and the child, how he grows physically and mentally and socially. We are also considering the child as part of the family, and a member of his own home, but bringing him into school and also including his mother and his father, and seeing that our nursery school, if possible, supplements the diet he needs, the clothing and activity and learning that he needs.

We are also considering our children not only as future citizens but as members, right now, of the community. Some of you may be acquainted with the town of Hannibal, for instance, where they have solved the problem of picking up the children and getting them to nursery school by the police car, which makes the tour each morning. You see the picture of these 2-year olds coming in on the arms of the policeman and about his knees and you know they are really learning the law is their friend, someone for them to understand and help, and no doubt they will cooperate with it more thoroughly later on. As members of the community right now, they are contributing at least as much in the way of self-reliance as they can give and looking after their own needs at this young age, and also in helping and working with other people.

We recognize these little children as persons who are learning very rapidly, and who are growing rather fast. We also recognize them as persons who are most active, and we provide for their waking hours, a chance for them to be active with their large muscles and outdoor play, and with smaller activities in the house as they learn to control the spoon, for instance, to feed themselves, or the soap with which they get their hands clean.

We also know that these children are experimenters and we are making rooms in the nursery school for them to do some real experimenting with their paints and clay and crayons. We hope we are providing a chance for them also to experiment profitably in how to get along with other people, how to use language to make them-

selves understood better, and a chance to try out these words that are still new and not always understood by them, a chance to have a person listen to what they say and also have time to talk to them about the things in which they are interested. We recognize this child, also, as one who has two particular needs. One need is the need of success, even though he is only two or three or four, as you saw them this morning, a chance to feel that he does put his cup back properly, that he can build successfully with blocks and put them away well, that his efforts at singing and talking are acceptable efforts and ones that he can enjoy succeeding in.

Our school is made the right size and our tempo, we hope, fits the children, so that they can succeed with the capabilities they are possible of, and if there is a chance that they are advanced or superior in some line, that they can practice that superiority.

We also know that these children have another important need, and that is an assurance that they belong somewhere, that there are people who truly love them and are affectionate toward them. That is an important need for our 2- or 3- or 4-year-olds, that they belong with their school group and there is a place for them; also, that their home is a secure place where they belong and find love and assurance and guidance.

I believe we are interested in having some of this time devoted to questions and discussion by the whole group.

Miss RICE. I thought perhaps there would be some questions you would like to ask Dr. Cockrell. So, we will open the meeting now for all of you to take part.

Dr. COCKRELL. I am not certain which phase of our nursery schools is the most interesting to you. The things they learn—of course, and Mrs. Elijah has told you how we plan for a balanced diet as far as food is concerned. We plan that also as far as their activity is concerned. We balance their chance to have the running and climbing that build big muscles, also activity with the opportunity to use clay and paints that let the smaller muscles develop.

We try to give them a chance, in which they work as a group, and also to give them opportunity through the day to be alone and work individually. We give them a chance to be very active and talk and yell as much as they want to, and that also is balanced with a chance for rest before lunch time of about 10 minutes, so they will be relaxed and can eat their meal with contentment and digest it thoroughly. That activity is also balanced by an afternoon nap which is much needed by little children.

We try to include an opportunity in this for all sensory activities, a chance to hear language and sounds and practice listening, a chance to look and use judgment. Some of the little puzzles we have here are placing of blocks properly, the selection of colors as they paint, and opportunity to develop better seeing, the opportunity to develop skill with their hands so they become really usable tools that can be skillful for them in writing or something else later on.

Taste is a sense that is developed, also, through the day and they are interested in temperature. Water is one of the most interesting play materials that we can provide for children, and now, in summertime they have a chance to use it. It makes sound, it sparkles, re-

flects, and changes in color. You can feel cool, warm, or hot, and that is one material that they can use, learning feel and temperature.

A well-rounded child, of course, is our goal, all-around development, and to secure that we need an all-around program.

Miss BODYCOMB. Do you have any classes for parents?

Dr. COCKRELL. Yes; it is one of the essentials of each school, that they organize what we call a parents' club, so that the parents are working together and doing. I think it answers the requirements of being a class as well as a club, because they include in each meeting part of their time with an outside speaker or their own program on child care. They also include activities.

Another thing, a mother who was here today spends at least 2 hours a month coming over to the nursery school and helping us. With adults, as with children, we find they learn and understand most if they have really entered into the activity and have done some of it. In addition, besides those parents who have children in nursery school, we are developing some classes in family life education and need many more than we have teachers to give.

Miss ROSSER. Dr. Cockrell, you spoke of the afternoon nap which is given in the nursery school during the morning.

Dr. COCKRELL. The nap is given only at that time before lunch in the nursery school. Our lunch is served generally at 11:15. That is the most usual hour, although each school sets its own hour. After their active play, the children wash and then rest and relax for 10 minutes.

Miss RICE. How do you provide for that?

Dr. COCKRELL. They each have their own cot, and even this rest is taken on their own cot. Some schools have just one sleeping room, but it is more satisfactory if there are about 15 in each room, with the teacher there. We find it satisfactory to darken the room somewhat and to have music at this time. That is the way in which some of our mothers can contribute, by having a mother play a violin occasionally, to add quiet music. This aids them in relaxing and resting, although we think it is good for the children to practice, very often, just resting without any particular help, because they are ready for that. It is a good time for them to talk quietly with their teacher. The point of this rest before the meal is to get the children calm and relaxed so all of them will leave behind the excitement of their play and get ready to go in feeling clean. We do not want them to sleep during that period.

The time when they actually go to sleep is right after lunch, and that is a very natural reaction for our children. Some of our 2-year-olds are nodding before they finish dessert. If they get right into bed they are ready to sleep. If too many interesting things happen after lunch they are sometimes roused out of that.

Miss BODYCOMB. Do your children get awfully tired before?

Dr. COCKRELL. Some do. Occasionally we go into a nursery school and find a young child or malnourished older child sound asleep in the morning. Sometimes one of the answers to gaining weight, sometimes one of the answers to troublesome behavior is to give the child a chance to rest and sleep. Many of the children in our schools come from homes where there are not nearly enough beds, sleeping three and four

in a bed, and eight in a room, and a chance to sleep is really welcome, particularly a chance to sleep in one's own clean, cool bed.

Miss MARY POWELL. Does that help the well-developed, healthy ones too?

Dr. COCKRELL. The well-developed healthy ones usually have adequate sleep, and this rest and nap are suitable. It is the more delicate child that needs extra sleep.

Miss BODYCOMB. I wonder if you carry out any activities on the floor, such as discussion versus dust and drafts.

Dr. COCKRELL. Yes; we have to use the floor in building and play, I believe. We do provide real cots for all their rest and sleep, and if possible I think it is better not to sleep or rest on the floor.

Miss BODYCOMB. How about group activities, as in kindergarten, stories or song on their chairs?

Dr. COCKRELL. We very often have little rugs, which happen to be made for us in the weaving project, and we sit on the floor on the rugs for singing together and stories. The floor is an essential part, and that is one of the things we try to keep clean, with suitable covering on it, and make it ready for children to use.

Miss BODYCOMB. The draft isn't too great?

Dr. COCKRELL. It is a thing the teacher has to remember, as well as temperature. We have considerable planning to keep our thermometers hung clear down close to the floor and out of the experimenting reach of 2- or 3-year-olds, who want to know about everything and thereby handle them. So, planning where to hang our thermometers and how to protect them is a real thing to figure out in each room. It is easier for us to forget it is colder on the floor where the children are than it is on our own level.

Miss ROSSEY. Do the children take off their shoes when they rest?

Dr. COCKRELL. That is again met as a practical problem. We put a little rug by each bed, and the older ones learn to spread it at the foot of the bed and go ahead and put their feet on that. We have decided if we want the children to rest we had better not spend all the time taking their shoes on and off, trying to take care of that. In the afternoon they really undress. In the winter they put on pajamas, and in the summer they put on the thinnest sun suits possible.

Miss BODYCOMB. How long do they sleep, or do you awaken them?

Dr. COCKRELL. We allow 2 hours. Some of that time is taken in getting undressed and settled. We find our 2-year-olds sleep almost the complete 2 hours. Then, as they get older they sleep a shorter time. The children get up, have their milk, and play until school is out. Occasionally we do have to waken the children at the end of the nap period. Their nap is from 12:30 to 2:30. At 2:30 we have to waken them because it is time for the bus to come, and regularity is important. We try to watch the children who have to be awakened every day, and see if we can plan for them to get to bed earlier at night or earlier for their nap. That is a pretty good sign they haven't had enough sleep.

Miss RICE. Do you have any deaf children in your group?

Dr. COCKRELL. We happen now to have two. I wish they had the opportunity to be here with you. One little boy in Hannibal will be 4 in July, who, although I am no judge, I think you would judge as

profoundly deaf and has no language. He fits into the daily routine. If he had been here with these children I doubt if you would know the difference. They were shy and didn't speak very much either. As far as following out any routine and play is concerned, he is very adjustable, and a happy child, but he is beginning, of course, to lose out on whatever language he should be learning.

The other child is a little girl of 4 who didn't enter nursery school until after she had had diphtheria and through diphtheria she became hard of hearing. She has very slight hearing, but she has language and the one thing we do know is to keep talking to her and she does still talk, but we can tell she hears very little of what we say. And she, too, finds a great deal of activity and pleasure in nursery school, but as we are trying to meet children's individual needs, I feel she needs your help.

Miss RICE. The responsibility for nursery school for the deaf child should be in schools for the deaf?

Dr. COCKRELL. Of course, that is where we would like to turn because we feel so limited in meeting their needs. It seems to me the responsibility for the young child hasn't been assumed definitely enough anywhere. I would like to hear from some of the others where the responsibility lies for these young children who have special needs.

Miss BODYCOMB. It seems to me it belongs in the home as much as possible.

Dr. COCKRELL. Certainly we need to include the home in every plan. On the other hand, knowing how many homes have limited possibilities, although you might place the responsibility there, they cannot meet them. We know homes that are not even feeding children properly, much less giving them the special training that they need. I think, perhaps, there is a community responsibility to homes that we need to meet in our democratic situation, now being brought closer together from all kinds of different standpoints. Perhaps the community should help in the individual homes to take care of the children. Public schools, at least in our State, are not concerned with the child under 6; in actual practice many of the teachers and superintendents are very thoroughly concerned with the children, but there is no inclusion of them.

Miss RICE. I am sorry but I believe our time is up. We all wish to thank Dr. Cockrell and those who have assisted her for the splendid help they have given us this morning.

(Adjournment at 10:50 a. m.)

SPEECH DEVELOPMENT

Leader: Jennie M. Henderson, Horace Mann School; chairman, Inis B. Hall, head teacher, deaf-blind department, Perkins Institution, Watertown, Mass.

Paper: Speech as Taught to Beginning Children, Josephine Avondino, A. G. Bell School, Chicago, Ill.

Paper: Primary Speech, Ethel M. Hilliard, supervising, intermediate department, New Jersey School.

SPEECH AS TAUGHT TO BEGINNING CHILDREN

(JOSEPHINE AVONDINO, A. G. Bell School, Chicago, Ill.)

In my paper I shall discuss the necessary factors of intelligible speech and the various devices and drills for securing these factors.

The factors necessary for good speech are:

- Pleasant tone.
- Good breathing.
- Good positions and movements.
- A keen sense of touch.
- Ability to imitate.
- Good speech memory.
- Continuity.

GOOD TONES

Almost every young child enters school with a natural babble. Do not let him lose this. Let him know that you like it and he will be most willing to babble for you. A child always likes to be noticed.

Do not make an effort to get arbitrary sounds at first, just voiced sounds. Try to discover in each child his best-voiced sound. Catch it. You have caught his voice when he is conscious of giving that sound whenever you ask him to repeat it. If his laugh is nice, let him know that you like it, so that he will voluntarily repeat it and be conscious of it. When he feels more at home in his schoolroom he will give you other sounds. The object is to discover in these very young deaf children their natural tones. Take one child and after you have discovered his natural tones, label them. Ask yourself, "What is that sound?" Is it an *a(r)*, *aw*, *oo*, or what? Has it that quality of naturalness found in the voices of hearing children? If it is not a definite sound, which sound does it most closely resemble? Then build his voice on that sound. When developing other sounds, go back repeatedly to that one good sound he has and lead gently into the new element that you are trying to develop. The vowel sounds are fundamentally the same, but they are made into arbitrary sounds by the change in the speech organs. Each child will make some sound which will resemble some arbitrary sound like *a(r)*, *aw*, *oo*, and *ee*. Develop the sound the child gives into the arbitrary sound which it most closely resembles. Train your ear to know when a child is giving an element, then if the element is not good, work on it until it is.

If a child's sounds are not true, develop the true one through vibrations and imitations. Let the child feel these vibrations on your own face. The stronger the teacher's vibrations are, the better the children will be able to imitate. Teach the child to feel the vibrations in the front part of his face. (Of course, for developing lower tones a child may feel vibrations in the chest.) Avoid having him center his thoughts on the vibrations in the throat. He will often mistake a constriction of the throat for the desired vibration. The result is a closing of the glottis and a prevention of an easy flow of breath into the mouth. There is just a slight feeling of muscular action in the

throat when $a(r)$ is being given, but there is a strong feeling of vibration. Teach the child to distinguish between the two.

If a child's best sound approximates the sound of *oo*, then build on *oo* for that child. If it is more nearly an *aw*, which often happens, or an *ee*, which frequently happens, too, develop that sound and build his voice on it.

When the sound produced is a natural one to your ear, the organs are in the right position and you can best develop the child's voice by having him repeat this natural sound frequently. Vary his recitations to get his attention. Repetition of this same sound is necessary but change your way of having him say it so as not to tire the child.

After you have secured a good voice or a good tone, the character of that tone does not change. The positions of the organs change, and it is through imitations that the other arbitrary sounds are developed. Tireless effort is needed to produce the arbitrary sounds you want.

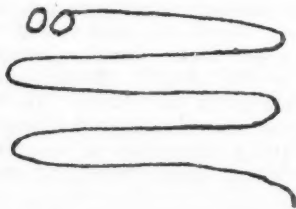
BREATH CONTROL

Breath control is the ability to control the stream of breath that is expelled from the lungs into the speech cavities. The amount of air in the speech cavities depends upon breathing habits. Without air in the mouth cavity there can be no speech. Incorrect breathing habits cause a disturbance of the action of the muscles of the speech organs. Too little breath will result in heavy tones, too much in breathy tones.

I find *oo* prolonged one of the best methods for forming good breathing habits. It is understood that the child must have a good *oo*. An effective device for prolonging tones is by means of continuous concentric circles. Write *oo* and have the child give it. While he is giving a prolonged *oo*, make continuous concentric circles, beginning at *oo*, as long as he prolongs the *oo*.



Each child will try to have a larger circle than any other child. This makes it but another little game of skill. To vary this, draw continuous horizontal lines beginning with *oo*, as



POSITION AND MOVEMENT

Position is the placing of the speech organs when producing speech. In each element the position is followed by breath. In the movement from one position to another the breath in the first element becomes a part of the element that follows. In the element "p" the position is: Lips shut, followed by breath. The breath becomes a part of "ar" in the combination "par."

This gives continuity to speech. Continuity is saying a number of combinations of words in a continuous flow of breath.

This continuous flow of breath prevents the closing of the glottis which gives that click so often heard in the speech of the deaf.

It is the ease in the movement from one element to another, from one combination to another, which determines the intelligibility of speech.

The tongue very rarely leaves the sides of the teeth in ordinary speech. If the tongue is not against the sides of the teeth when going into position, an extra sound is introduced into that position.

In nearly all consonants the tongue is against the sides of the teeth. In order that the children may see this position, the teacher should assume a broad smile position when giving the element or combination. Take the position for "r". The tip of the tongue is rolled and the lips are slightly rounded. Because of the rounded position of the lips the child cannot see the tongue. He should see the position of the tongue which the symbol "r" stands for.

Movement is the changing from one position to another.

Good positions are necessary in securing good movement but as soon as a position is developed it should be put with another element to form a combination. As each element varies in its relation to other elements, this prevents the "r" element from becoming fixed in one position.

The "f" in *far* is different from the "f" in *faw*, in *foo*, or in *fee*.

In natural speech our lips assume the position of the vowel following the consonant before taking the consonant position and they retain the position of the vowel until the following position of the consonant is assumed.

IMITATION

Imitation is one of the most important factors in the acquisition of speech. Speech is acquired wholly through imitation, whether it is through the sight or through the touch or through the hearing. The hearing child hears speech before he makes any attempt to reproduce it. The imitative ability of a deaf child must be developed to the *n*th degree in order that he will be able to approximate the speech of a hearing child.

It is very essential that an element or a combination to be imitated should be presented in the most natural way. The child should be made to watch the positions and movements of elements and combinations to be imitated before attempting them. His attention is not divided, he is not trying to do two things at the same time. Sometimes, however, it is necessary to exaggerate the position of an element in order that a child in trying to imitate the exaggerated position of the teacher will more readily approximate the natural. For example in *s* the teeth are often too close together, and the

tongue too tightly pressed against the teeth which makes it impossible for the breath to escape.

TOUCH

Touch as applied to the teaching of speech is the feeling of where the sound is made.

In *t* the child feels the sensation of the tip of the tongue against the lower part of the upper teeth and the expulsion of breath afterward. A hearing child depends upon his hearing; the deaf child, having no hearing, must depend upon the feeling of speech to guide him.

The correlation of the sight and touch is another important factor in the development of speech. The child must be able to locate the sensation of the feeling of speech if he is to speak with any degree of intelligibility. A child who cannot distinguish the difference between the feeling of *t* and *k* cannot know when he is giving *kop* or *top*.

DICTATION

Dictation is one of the mechanical means of correlating the sight and the touch. In dictation the child sees the position of an element and locates the feeling of that element before reproducing it. After reproducing it, in order to fix it more firmly in his mind, he is required to point to the written symbol of that element if he is not able to write it.

SPEECH MEMORY

Speech memory must be developed in a child if he is to use good language with any degree of ease.

Without speech memory he cannot remember how he is to say what he wants to say, and without language memory he cannot remember what to say.

Speech memory is developed by intelligent repetition which takes the place of usage, the natural way of acquiring speech.

CONTINUITY

Continuity is the saying of a thought with a continuous flow of breath. Any interruption in the flow of breath will cause an interruption in the flow of thought and will lessen the intelligibility of the speech. This interruption of the breath is caused by the contraction of the muscles of the larynx, which results in the click so prevalent in the speech of the deaf.

This click in the throat is one of the most destructive elements in speech development and is noticed in the speech of very young children.

AIDS IN SECURING GOOD SPEECH

This is a summary of a demonstration that I gave to a group of teachers. This was the work done with a class of children in the Bell School. I am giving the paper just as I gave it to the class. In this paper you will see the practical application of all the factors necessary for good speech.

This lesson begins with children from whom good tones have been secured and from those tones the arbitrary sounds, *oo*, *a(r)*, and *aw* have been developed and also the consonants *wh*, *f*, *p*, and *th*. Several of these children have extremely low voices, too low even for deaf children. Hearing children's voices are very high. If you try to tune your own voice to that of some hearing child you will realize this.

It has been my experience that you can reach some children by giving a very loud, high *oo*. If not, reach them with a middle tone. Try to reach the hearing any way you can. That is Nature's way of developing voice, through the hearing, and cannot be improved upon. I had the children give this high *oo*, then the low *a(r)* very slowly at first, then faster. The high *oo* given with the low *a(r)* tends to lower the high *oo* and to raise the low *a(r)*.

As I said, this lesson concerned itself with children who have had the beginnings of voice building exercises and who have had the arbitrary sounds, *a(r)*, *aw*, and *oo*, and the consonants *wh*, *f*, *p*, and *th*. Starting from that point we reviewed *a(r)*, *aw*, and *oo*, both from the lips and the written form on the blackboard. Having secured a good *oo* and *a(r)*, we combined them into the voice drill *oo a(r)*, *oo a(r)*, *oo a(r)*. Parallel with this, the consonants *wh*, *f*, *p*, and *th* were developed. If you give plenty of voice work and elementary drills, you develop the powers of imitation to such a degree that you do not have great difficulty in developing single elements. Strenuous work in developing single elements causes the children to exaggerate.

Let me warn you again not to adhere slavishly to a set of drills. You will find that you cannot give the drills in the same order in two different classes of the same grade.

After the children can give the voice drill *oo*, *a(r)* with sustained breathing, that is, with no break between the groups of three, write the drill *oo a(r)*, *oo a(r)* on the board and let it remain for some time. When the next drill, *oo aw*, is developed and becomes smooth, add that to the one already on the board and let it remain. Have the children repeat after you and also from the board.

The following are the voice drills that have been developed as you saw *oo a(r)* developed in the classroom. These are combinations of *oo*, *a(r)*, and *aw*.

<i>oo a(r)</i>	<i>oo a(r)</i>	<i>oo a(r)</i>
<i>oo aw</i>	<i>oo aw</i>	<i>oo aw</i>
<i>a(r) oo</i>	<i>a(r) oo</i>	<i>a(r) oo</i>
<i>a(r) aw</i>	<i>a(r) aw</i>	<i>a(r) aw</i>
<i>aw oo</i>	<i>aw oo</i>	<i>aw oo</i>

Give these in groups of three as in *oo a(r)* above.

If you have difficulty in getting a sound, when you have secured it, be sure to put the written form on the board, so the association of the good speech sound and the written form is the correct one. This will avoid wearing out the children. For instance, Andy's *ee* was nasal. By showing him definitely that you did not want vibration in his nose, a good *ee* was secured. After a good deal of perseverance, but not a single prolonged effort, so that he became tired, Andy gave a good *ee*. *Ee* was written on the board. Then the good *ee* which he finally gave, and the *ee* on the board became one. For a time, whenever I wanted to give an *ee*, I pointed to the *ee* on the board which had for him only the correct association.

Having developed a good $a(r)$ and a good f , combine these in the following drill:

$fa(r)$	$fa(r)$	$fa(r)$
$fa(r)$	$fa(r)$	$fa(r)$
$fa(r)$	$fa(r)$	$fa(r)$

These, of course, are given from the lips. When the child repeats this well enough to satisfy you, that is, when you can hear a good f , and the child can give each group of three, $fa(r)$, $fa(r)$, $fa(r)$ in one sustained breath, put the drill on the board. In this way develop:

faw	faw	faw
faw	faw	faw
faw	faw	faw
	and	
foo	foo	foo
foo	foo	foo
foo	foo	foo

When developing a new drill it is best to go back to the beginning of that type of drill. For instance, you wish to put foo into a drill. Let the child give $fa(r)$, $fa(r)$, $fa(r)$, faw , faw , faw and then gently glide into the more difficult foo , foo , foo .

Having secured a good p , follow the same line of procedure of putting it into drills as with f .

As constant repetition is necessary to keep the elements clear-cut, the following device has been found very satisfactory: Write each element developed on a card. Have the children seated closely in a semicircle about you. Hold up one card. Let each child give the element written on that card. Next, hold up a different card for each child. Be sure that in this step, each child repeats every element. In the next step have a child come up, repeat the element on one card, take that card in his hands and show it to each child, then repeat it to each child. In using this device, however, the teacher must be absolutely sure that every time the child repeats the element, he gives it correctly, otherwise, it will do more harm than good.

It is often found advisable to take up the double syllable drills, that is $a(r)fa(r)$, $a(r)fa(r)$, $a(r)fa(r)$ without waiting for development of a good ee . The double syllable drills, I think, give greater smoothness to speech than the drills of one syllable. Therefore, begin the following drills:

$a(r)fa(r)$	$a(r)fa(r)$	$a(r)fa(r)$
$a(r)fa(r)$	$a(r)fa(r)$	$a(r)fa(r)$
$a(r)fa(r)$	$a(r)fa(r)$	$a(r)fa(r)$

As you see, all drills are developed in the same manner, that is in groups of three. Next take $a(r) faw$ and arrange it in drills, the same as $a(r)fa(r)$. Add this to your $a(r)fa(r)$ on the board.

If you have secured a good ee , put it into the drill, fee , fee , fee . Be sure to carry out the same instructions given above with the foo drill, that is, go back to the beginning drills and lead gently into the new drill.

Now begin the following drill:

$fa(r)$	faw	foo
$fa(r)$	faw	foo
$fa(r)$	faw	foo

Have the children repeat, first from the lips through imitation, then the written word on the blackboard. The children then should give both from imitation and from the blackboard.

Here is a list of drills that are to be carried out in the same manner as those described above.

<i>a(r)fa(r)</i>	<i>a(r)fa(r)</i>	<i>a(r)fa(r)</i>
<i>a(r)faw</i>	<i>a(r)faw</i>	<i>a(r)faw</i>
<i>a(r)foo</i>	<i>a(r)foo</i>	<i>a(r)foo</i>

leading into *a(r)fa(r)*, *a(r)faw*, *a(r)foo*.

When you have secured a good *fee*, *fee*, *fee*, then give:

<i>fa(r)</i>	<i>fa(r)</i>	<i>fa(r)</i>
<i>faw</i>	<i>faw</i>	<i>faw</i>
<i>foo</i>	<i>foo</i>	<i>foo</i>
<i>fee</i>	<i>fee</i>	<i>fee</i>

which leads into *fa(r)*, *faw*, *foo*, *fee*. Following this, come the drills with *p* instead of *f*. Then any combinations of the consonants and the vowels *a(r)*, *aw*, *oo*, and *ee* which you feel advisable to give. For instance, sometimes a class gets a good *m* sooner than some other consonants. If so put it into a drill.

WHISPERING

Whispering is a device used in improving the speech of the deaf. It is very helpful in overcoming the click often heard in the explosive sounds *p*, *t*, *k*. In these sounds the muscles often contract, this closes the glottis and prevents an easy flow of breath.

Whispering helps to overcome nasality. A child can feel the difference between the breath coming through the nose much more easily than he can feel the vibrations in the nose. He soon learns that the voice must follow the stream of breath whether it is through the nose or the mouth.

Whispering makes the voice alive and vibrant. In it there is no vibration of the vocal cords. Consequently the muscles do not contract so the flow of breath is not interrupted.

Here is a method to develop whispering. Write *wh*, *f*, *th*, on the board.

Have the child give *wh*, *f*, *th*, and at the same time say "No voice." Then, with the tongue in the position for *ar* and the child's hand held against your mouth say *ar* with no voice. Have him give *ar* without voice. When he has given the voiceless *ar*, write the dotted *ar*. This becomes the symbol for the voiceless *ar*. After voiceless *ar*, get voiceless *aw*, voiceless *oo*, and voiceless *ee* in the same manner.

Voiceless *ar*, *aw*, *oo*, *ee* are but the *h* before the *ar*, *aw*, *oo*, and *ee* written in this manner:

<i>ar</i>
<i>. . .</i>
<i>aw</i>
<i>. . .</i>
<i>oo</i>
<i>. . .</i>
<i>ee</i>
<i>. . .</i>

From these you get the voiceless *r* for which the dotted *r* is a symbol. After securing voiceless *r*, work for voiceless *w*, *m*, *l*, *n*. . . . Voiceless *r*, *w*, *m*, *l*, *n* prevents the introduction of a sound between consonant combinations such as *fr*, *fl*, *pr*, *sm*, *sn*, *al*, *sw*, etc.

You very rarely go beyond the voiceless *ar*, *aw*, *oo*, *ee*, with very young children. You use the whispering only to develop the *h* sound in young children.

PRIMARY SPEECH

(ETHEL M. HILLIARD, supervising teacher, intermediate department, New Jersey School)

I like to think of a discussion of speech for the deaf as falling into three groupings.

First, a study of our normal speech as analyzed from anatomical, psychological, social, and personality points of view; our speech which we so glibly employ in daily life, thinking intently of ideas expressed, and hardly at all of the mechanical vehicle of communication; this natural, easy way of social intercourse; this key to so much of the world's beauty and utility in our commonly shared existence; this gift of the gods which we wish with all our hearts we could pass on to children with closed ears.

Second, a consideration serious and frank, of what we have in the artificially acquired speech of deaf children, comparisons we may make ourselves or have demonstrated to us by scientific research, between what we are able to produce by teaching speech and our own expression which rolls so lightly from our tongues.

And third, of course, steps we may take for further improvement so that "success in the ear of the listener" may for our young deaf children continue to increase as our ideals rise, our understanding grows, and our techniques cover wider ground.

It is with keen and especial interest that we teachers of the deaf realize and welcome the comparatively recent emphasis placed upon the subject of speech from the cradle up, at least through college, and even into the workaday world. Indeed, so many phases of our modern existence have come to depend upon good speech that we have only to run our eye along a library shelf of books on the subject to see the many different points at which our lives are touched by scientific studies of speech.

It is significant that Dr. Alexander Graham Bell in his famous *Mechanism of Speech* decried in 1891 the seeming fact that "it is thought no disgrace to be a lisper, a burrer, a mumblor, or drawler—to twang words in the nose, to scream, to squeak, to mouthe, to abuse the glorious faculty of speech," and he gives as the reason for general ignorance of speech the very commonness of the faculty. We can hope the dear old gentleman was slightly exaggerating in his condemnation of the good folks of the otherwise gay nineties but he certainly would rejoice to know that the general public of the forties is, through radio, telephone, theater, debate, discussion panel, speech clinic, adult education, and so forth, at least continuously made aware of the importance of clear and effective speech.

Bell's own description of normal speech, with its fine phonetic analysis, is still the basis for classification of sounds, but he has inadequately emphasized the other fundamentals of speech, and I think in following his teachings we have as teachers of the deaf overemphasized the importance of articulation without enough consideration of other essential components of good speech.

Later authorities have added analysis of these fundamentals, and have established the importance of such factors as voice quality, intensity, resonance, pitch, enunciation, rhythm, fluency, timing, accent, and emphasis, which earlier writers, including Dr. Bell, mentioned but did not sufficiently stress for teachers of deaf children. I think we have not realized how absolutely important it is for us to be so well grounded in these basic principles that we can never be guilty of allowing a deaf child's speech to suffer through our ignorance of a single one. The slight neglect of one of these principles in the speech of a hearing child results in a speech defect. A lisp may become a serious difficulty for a hearing person. A high authority sent out from Washington to discuss tax reforms at a Grange meeting so disturbed his hearers with his peculiar lisping that his message lost much of its value. A little irregularity in accent may mar the English of a foreign learner. An eminent expert in elementary education with a fine message failed completely as a lecturer until the irritating squeak in her voice could be trained out. The work of our speech clinics and classes in public schools shows the necessity of correcting speech faults as early as may be, before habits become fixed. Even with a small defect it is difficult to unlearn and substitute when once the habit is set. Imagine a 10-year-old child being told never to say K again. Think of his trying to remember that no matter how excited he might be about his bike's being broken, he must stop to remember to say, "My bite is broten." That is somewhat as we do when we correct a missaid element, or lower a squeaky voice. In spite of what the child wishes to say, he must first think of how to say it, all because he learned it the wrong way in the first place.

Two quotations might sum up the advance made in the last 50 years in our attitude toward the study of speech.

Dr. Bell says, "Speech consists of variously modified emissions of breath," and then proceeds with his invaluable and authoritative theses on the subject. He devoted his attention mainly to the production of speech and his contribution has never been equaled.

A newer authority, after following Dr. Bell completely in his explanations of the production of speech, says, "Speech is, of course, an agency for expression and a means of communication, but neither of these terms accurately suggests its primary purpose. The fundamental purpose of speech is social adaptation and control, through expression and communication. Its essential function is the adjustment of the individual to that most fluid and unpredictable portion of his environment, namely, other persons."

There is nothing new in any of this for most of us, but in the face of our undertaking to give speech to the deaf, a renewal of the ultimate goal should be ever before us, even though it may only uplift our hopes as we hitch our wagon to a star.

It would seem only a discouraging thing if we were not aware of progress toward such goals. Our work today in speech among the deaf is a far cry from the days when speech was called articulation and a teacher taught it as a sort of extra accomplishment to the few who were thought capable of learning to enunciate. Musical rhythm has been brought into play; hearing aids are making their fine contribution toward "naturalness"; an "oral atmosphere" is known to be important, at least in the schoolroom, and preferably outside, for speech to be learned must be practised. Teacher training is improving. Scientific educational training and practice are growing requirements. The colleges and universities are giving dignity to the subject in all aspects. Many investigators are devising and applying tentative tests and making objective comparisons between normal speech and that of the deaf. The findings of Dr. Hudgins and Dr. Heider at Northampton and others working both formally and informally are helping us to face the facts, are placing before us the results of intensive oralism. The formal tests tabulate the common characteristics of deaf speech and leave us experienced teachers to figure out which of the faults and inadequacies are innate in the fact of deafness, and which may be sadly laid at our feet as a sacrifice to our own inadequacy. For just as our many successes are due to our skill, our knowledge, our patience, our interest, so our failures are due to lack of some resource, which if we only could command it might bring the spoken word to many children who seem hopeless and improve conditions for many whose speech is poor.

Complacency accounts for our following worn-out formulae, for trying to teach out of college notebooks, for condoning faults as inherent in deafness, for branding as failures those not responding readily to orthodox methods.

That is the seamy side, for in spite of wonderful strides which thrill us with joy of accomplishment, there is still some of our handiwork which is bound to make us shiver. There are many fields we must recultivate, unless we are, in complacency, to accept as inevitable the presently recorded findings in speech analysis with the deaf.

I believe we can increase more rapidly than at present the number of children acquiring good speech and the quality of what we call good speech.

I believe we too often neglect the idea of "speech readiness." Studies among hearing children show great divergence in age and stage of development at which speech is acquired, as well as in the time required to correct the baby talk into normal speech.

Should we think that every deaf child entering school is ready for speech? I believe our mistakes there are imbedded in the misguided tenet that words must be given first in lip-reading, then in speech, then in writing. That single principle has ruined the speech of many a child, mainly by allowing association of ideas with imperfect speech. It has forced the neglect of the prolonged babbling stage in which hearing babies indulge and which alone can foster easy utterance. Also it seems to point the mistaken belief that education depends upon speech. It doesn't. Not only that, when mental development is held back for speech, evil effects begin. Bright children acquire undesirable mental and dispositional habits, valuable time is wasted and at that the speech may be distressingly

poor. I believe that education appropriate to the age should go steadily on by means of experiences and of writing and pictures, and that speech should be developed individually and in small groups by acknowledged experts until it becomes a natural medium for the child. Ingenuity provides many ways of planning such a program through progressive education. Thus speech development can be more thorough, less artificial, because "babbling" and syllable drills can be carried on till easy pronunciation is achieved. Then when speech does come into its own, it is one more way of expression and becomes the fluent medium of thought communication. Speech should wait for all its component parts to be fused into reasonably fluent expression, and should have its background in the mental development which provides something to talk about. This does not mean material delay, for the speech program goes on amazingly fast and its foundation is more thorough and natural.

We can save much time by giving general exercises in basic rhythms for accent and emphasis instead of much drilling on individual words. Have you seen teachers trying to teach geographical terms as such, when the underlying principles were not clear? Isn't that also why we have *suchool*, *pulay*, *Mondee*, *kittun*, and so on? Rhythmic drills have not established the patterns before laborious, awkward efforts are tied up with meaningful words. Then instead of being able to build for improvement on a sound basis, our speech teaching becomes mere speech correction, with efforts made throughout his school career to correct Johnny's nasality, or his faulty K, or to give him a good ch in time for his graduation essay.

I have made this paper too long. In closing I want to congratulate the many deaf children whose speech is a credit to them and their teachers, and to hope for every single one that all of us who essay to give them speech will not be satisfied till what we put upon their tongues is as near to what we use ourselves as can be brought about by detailed study of normal speech, frank facing of our needless failures, the use of every device available, and a willingness to break with precedent in the interest of individual benefit.

Thus only can we stand before the educational world and justify the so-called oral method.

AURICULAR TRAINING AND RHYTHM

Leader: Marshall S. Hester, California School; chairman, Howard M. Quigley, superintendent, Kansas School.

Paper: A Hearing-Aid Testing Clinic, James H. Galloway, principal, Louisiana School.

Discussion: Dwight W. Reeder, New Jersey School; Alfred Cranwill, principal, Michigan School, and others.

A HEARING-AID-TESTING CLINIC⁴

(JAMES H. GALLOWAY, principal in the Louisiana School)

About a year ago, at the request of the instructor, audiometric tests were given to a group of hard-of-hearing adults who were taking lip-

⁴This paper was prepared while the writer was a member of the staff of the New Jersey School.

reading in extension classes in Trenton, N. J. During the course of the testing the subject of hearing aids arose. It developed that many of these persons had wasted hard-earned money on them. Some who had very poor bone-conduction had been sold bone-conduction instruments; others had had the wrong ear fitted; most of the aids had been fitted without the use of audiograms. Those who had not yet bought an aid were fearful of being victimized by unscrupulous salesmen. Of the group of 40, 21 were interested in hearing aids, but only 2 wore them.

These facts were presented to Mr. Charles M. Jochem, superintendent of the New Jersey School for the Deaf. He described the situation as deplorable and offered his wholehearted cooperation as well as the facilities of the school in establishing means to combat it.

It was decided to provide a place on the school grounds where hard-of-hearing persons of Trenton and vicinity could get unbiased facts concerning the performance of hearing aids and where they could try them and have them tested before buying them. The objectives which were set up for these efforts were the following: To force some of the representatives of hearing aids in the area to adopt higher ethical standards; and to help restore confidence to the hard of hearing in the excellent, modern hearing aids which they need badly.

The first problem in getting the clinic under way was the selection of the proper testing techniques and materials. A pure-tone technique to test the over-all response characteristics of the instruments, and speech discrimination and intelligibility tests were needed. After examining some testing methods, the pure-tone technique and the speech discrimination tests of Dr. Robert West, of the University of Wisconsin, were selected. Intelligibility tests in the form of words and sentences by the late Dr. Phyllis Kerridge were obtained through Miss Josephine B. Timberlake, of the Volta Bureau.

A need was felt, at this point, for the advice of persons familiar with the problems of the hearing-aid manufacturer, the hard-of-hearing individual and the otologist. The following persons were asked to serve as an advisory board: Dr. Edmund P. Fowler, Sr., otologist, New York City; Dr. C. Stewart Nash, otologist, Rochester, N. Y., both members of the Council on Physical Therapy of the American Medical Association; Miss Estelle E. Samuelson, executive secretary of the New York League for the Hard of Hearing; and Miss Josephine B. Timberlake, superintendent of the Volta Bureau. The generous response as well as the help and advice given by these persons have been an inspiration.

The hearing-aid-testing clinic, as it has come to be called, has been in operation since April 1940. A description of what is actually done when a hard-of-hearing person comes to the clinic for help in the selection of a hearing aid, follows.

It should be stated here that anyone coming to the clinic, who is serious about getting a hearing aid, is asked to have a custom-molded earpiece made before trying out the instruments, provided, of course, that an air-conduction aid was recommended. It has been the experience of the clinic that only through a custom-molded earpiece can a fair and accurate trial of a hearing aid be made.

The subject whose audiograms are used here is a man of 41 years of age, deafened in the First World War as a result of an explosion.

according to his testimony. He came to the clinic on October 24, 1940, for advice in the selection of a hearing aid. The solid line and circle are used to represent the air-conduction threshold for his right ear; and the solid line and cross, his air-conduction threshold for the left ear. The dotted lines with circle and cross are used to represent the bone-conduction threshold for his right and left ears, respectively.

Three things are determined from his audiogram: (1) Whether the subject needs an air-conduction or bone-conduction instrument; (2) which ear is to be fitted; and (3) what is the binaural loss for speech in percent?

In determining whether the subject needs an air- or bone-conduction instrument, the bone-conduction threshold is compared directly with

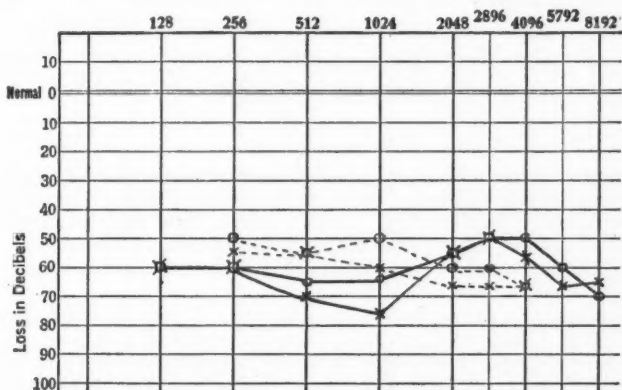


FIGURE 1.—Bone- and air-conduction audiogram.

the air-conduction threshold. We are not interested here in how nearly the subject's bone-conduction approximates normal. Hence the "rings" and special readings on the audiometer, which relate the subject's bone-conduction threshold to the normal, are not used. In this case, the bone-conduction threshold in the lower frequencies is slightly higher than the air-conduction, while it is lower in the high frequencies where the deficiency of hearing aids is greatest. The fact that custom-molded earpieces provide quite an amount of bone-conduction as well as air-conduction is an important consideration. A microphone was plugged into the microphone circuit of the audiometer and the subject applied the air- and bone-conduction receivers alternately. He found speech to be much clearer through the air-conduction receiver with less amplification. The choice of an air-conduction aid was made upon the basis of a consideration of these factors.

The decision as to which ear to fit was relatively easy in this case. According to an otologist's report, there was no drainage from either ear and neither was likely to abscess, or improve in acuity. Because of the degree of loss in both ears, a powerful instrument would be needed. The sharp rise in acuity from 1,024 to 2,896 cycles in the left

ear affected the discrimination for speech. For these reasons the ear-piece was made for the right ear, which, in this case, is the better ear.

To compute the binaural loss for speech in percentage, Dr. West's method of using the seven frequencies from 128 to 8,192 cycles was used. This consists of choosing the response of the better ear for each frequency, multiplying it by a factor, which is a constant for equalizing the frequency components of English speech, and adding the products algebraically:

TABLE I

Frequency	Response of better ear from fig. 1 (decibels)	Factor	Product (percent)	Frequency	Response of better ear from fig. 1 (decibels)	Factor	Product (percent)
128.....	60	0.110	6.600	4096.....	50	0.170	8.500
256.....	60	.090	5.400	8192.....	65	.210	13.650
512.....	65	.090	5.200	Loss for speech without aid.....			52.475
1024.....	65	.075	4.875				
2048.....	55	.180	8.250				

Of course the loss for speech is not so accurate as the three decimal places would indicate, but it is certainly more accurate than averaging the responses of the three "speech frequencies" and multiplying by 0.8.

After determining the binaural loss for speech of the subject without aid, the next task is to determine his binaural loss for speech with aid.

This requires a rather involved technique. It consists of four steps. The electrical output of an audiometer is amplified and made to activate a loudspeaker. The subject is placed, without hearing aid, in front of the loudspeaker (10 inches from the loudspeaker to the subject's ears). By his response to the pure tones from the loudspeaker, his audiogram is taken. This is step 1.

The hearing aid is then fitted and put on the subject, and, by his response to the pure tones from the loudspeaker, his audiogram is

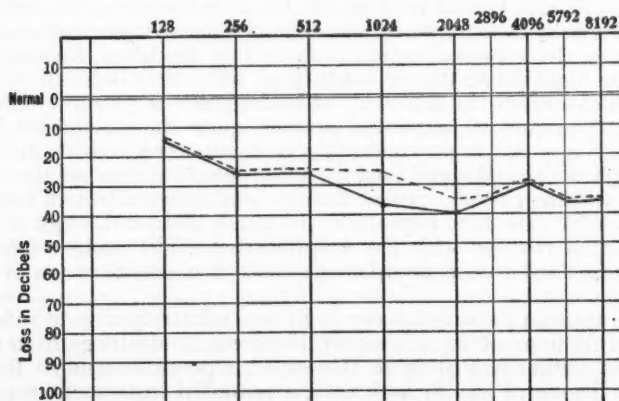


FIGURE 2.—Audiogram through loudspeaker with carbon, bone-conduction aid, and without aid.

taken with the hearing aid. This is step 2. Steps 1 and 2 are illustrated below. The subject's audiogram through the loudspeaker without the hearing aid is represented by the solid line, and with the aid by the broken line. The gains with the hearing aid are recorded as minus values:

TABLE II

Frequency	Audiogram through loud-speaker without aid	Audiogram through loud-speaker with aid	Difference	Frequency	Audiogram through loud-speaker without aid	Audiogram through loud-speaker with aid	Difference
128	15	15	0	2048	40	35	-5
256	25	25	0	4096	30	30	0
512	25	25	0	8192	35	35	0
1024	35	25	-10				

The gain at each frequency is added, algebraically, to the values of the original audiogram (fig. I). This is step 3:

TABLE III

Frequency	Binaural reading from fig. I	Gains with hearing aid	Corrected ratings	Frequency	Binaural reading from fig. I	Gains with hearing aid	Corrected ratings
128.....	60	0	60	2048.....	55	-5	50
256.....	60	0	60	4096.....	50	0	50
512.....	65	0	65	8192.....	65	0	65
1024.....	65	-10	55				

These corrected ratings are multiplied by the factors and the products are added to find the hearing loss for speech. This is the final step:

TABLE IV

Frequency	Rating	Factor	Product (percent)	Frequency	Rating	Factor	Product (percent)
128.....	60	0.110	6.600	2048.....	50	0.150	7.500
256.....	60	.090	5.400	4096.....	50	.170	8.500
512.....	65	.080	5.200	8192.....	65	.210	13.650
1024.....	55	.075	4.125				
				Loss for speech through the aid.....			50.975

Before the audiogram is taken through the hearing aid, speech discrimination tests and intelligibility tests are given as well as opportunity for group conversation.

It was found that the loss for speech through the hearing aid is 50.975 percent. Comparing this with the loss for speech without the aid, 53.525 percent, we find that the hearing aid improves the subject's acuity for speech about 2½ percent.

To study the over-all response characteristics of the instrument, the binaural audiogram from table I is compared with the curve made up from the corrected ratings of table III. Some of the characteristics studied from the curve are: Whether the amplification of the aid is peaked or relatively flat; how far into the high and low ranges the amplification extends; how much power is available; how much selective amplification the aid can actually afford, etc. The audio-

gram from table I is represented by the solid line. The audiogram made up from the corrected ratings of table III is represented by the broken line.

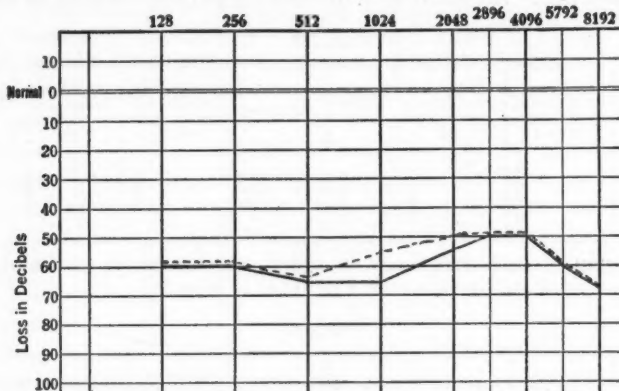


FIGURE 3.—Audiogram showing how much the carbon, bone-conduction aid helped the subject's hearing.

We can now check the performance as shown by the broken line in figure 3 with the subject's score on West's discrimination tests and Kerridge's intelligibility tests. The particular aid illustrated here is a carbon, bone-conduction instrument sold to the subject about 2 months before he came to the clinic. Maximum amplification at 1024 and 2048 cycles is characteristic of this type of instrument, as is also the sharp decline from 2048 to 2896 cycles. The performance in the lower frequencies is unusually poor. We should expect the subject's discrimination of sounds characterized by frequencies in the fundamental range (100 to 400 cycles) as well as the high frequency consonant sounds (2500 to 8000 cycles) to be about as good without the aid as with it. As a matter of fact, the little amplification given to the middle tones barely brings them into the conversational range so that little improvement would be experienced even there. The subject's average score on the discrimination and intelligibility tests without the aid was 60 percent and with the aid 68 percent. This is characteristic of the "fitting" done by some hearing-aid representatives.

It may be wondered why steps 1 and 2 of Dr. West's technique are not eliminated by merely placing the receiver of the audiometer against the microphone of the hearing aid and taking the subject's audiogram through the aid in this way. This is certainly simpler and quicker, but it is also inaccurate. Anyone who tests hearing aids in this way very much is struck with the inaccuracy of this method. The reason that it is inaccurate, according to Dr. West, is that the intensity of each of the test tones of the audiometer has been calibrated to the more or less fixed characteristics of the resonance chamber formed by placing the receiver against the ear. Placing the receiver against the microphone of a hearing aid forms a resonance chamber of entirely

different characteristics to which the intensity of the test tones are not calibrated. The reason for the inaccuracy becomes quite obvious when we recall that the microphones of hearing aids are housed in cases of different sizes, shapes, and material.

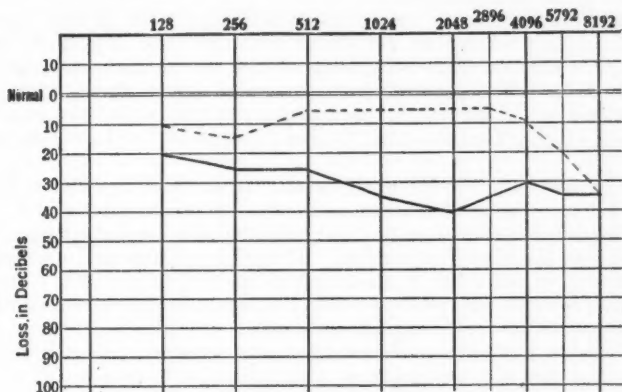


FIGURE 4.—Audiogram through loudspeaker with air-conduction, vacuum-tube aid and without aid.

The subject was told to go back to the company from which he bought the instrument and demand that the carbon, bone-conduction aid be exchanged for one of the vacuum-tube, air-conduction type. This he did, after some barter and a little expense. He had an ear-piece made and returned to the clinic to have the new instrument tested. About 2 weeks had intervened. New audiograms were taken through the loudspeaker with and without the new aid. The audiogram without the aid is represented by the solid line and the audiogram with the vacuum tube aid by the broken line.

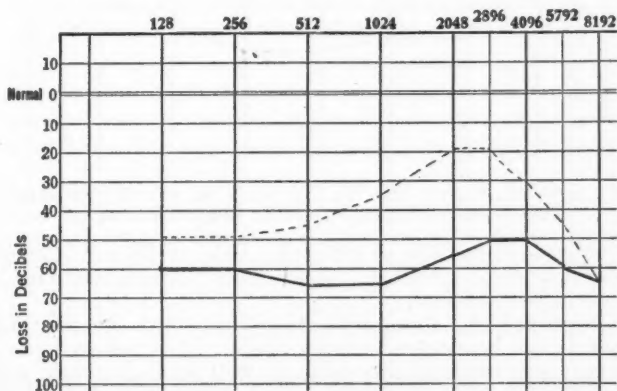


FIGURE 5.—Audiogram showing how much the air-conduction, vacuum-tube aid helped the subject's hearing.

By again applying Dr. West's formula for converting pure tone loss into loss for speech, we find that the vacuum-tube aid improved the subject's acuity for speech about 17 percent, or about 15 percent over the carbon, bone-conduction instrument. This is only fair performance for a vacuum-tube aid.

By again substituting the corrected ratings in the binaural audiogram from figure 1, we can determine how much the subject's binaural hearing for pure tone has been improved by the vacuum-tube, air-conduction aid. The binaural, pure-tone audiogram from figure 1 is represented by the solid line. The broken line indicates how much the binaural hearing for pure tone has been improved by the vacuum-tube aid.

The greater amplification, especially from 2048 to 5792 cycles, is evident here. Some of the best aids could have brought a little more amplification to the low range and extended the amplification a little farther into the high frequencies. The subject's average score on the discrimination tests was 80 percent and on the intelligibility tests 84 percent. Scores of 90 percent are not uncommon for persons with the same degree of loss with vacuum-tube aids.

The subject had to keep this aid because he could not get his money back. Another aid was tried as a matter of comparison. The subject's score on discrimination and intelligibility tests jumped to an average of 94 percent. Figure 6 shows how the second vacuum-tube aid improved the subject's binaural hearing:

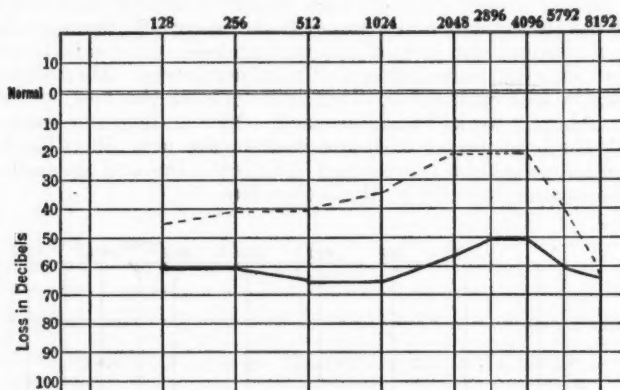


FIGURE 6.—Audiogram showing how much the second air-conduction vacuum-tube aid helped the subject's hearing.

The improvement of 5db. at 128 cycles, 10db. at 256 and 512 and also at 4096 cycles, are to be noted. These slight improvements made the difference in performance.

This constitutes the laboratory testing to which the hearing aids are subjected at the hearing-aid-testing clinic. It is believed that discrimination and intelligibility tests as well as an accurate test for the over-all response characteristics are indispensable, basic tools for the proper fitting of an aid. It is likewise believed, however, that an aid should not be selected on the basis of these tests alone. The sub-

ject must use the instrument in situations which are as nearly like his normal routine as possible.

Providing lifelike situations creates a real problem for the clinic. If the instruments could be loaned to individuals for a few days, the problem would be quickly and easily solved. However, this cannot be done, as most hearing-aid manufacturers do not like the practice. The six hearing aids now on hand are charged to the clinic by the manufacturers, and it is not felt the clinic should run the risk of the loss or breakage involved. As a substitution for loaning instruments, Tuesday and Wednesday evenings of each week have been designated as Clinic Nights. On these evenings, beginning at 7:30, hard-of-hearing persons of Trenton and vicinity are invited to come with their friends and wear the instruments on the grounds of the New Jersey school. Conversational groups are arranged so that the individual may judge the performance of the aid in group conversation. In the auditorium, he may test the aid for its ability to bring in speech at a distance. This is comparable to the situation in church or at a lecture. Opportunity to test the performance of the aid in regard to amplified speech and music from the stage is also afforded. Whether or not this is a good substitution for loaning out the instrument is still a question, but, for the present, it seems to be as far as it is possible to go.

Some of the special problems encountered by the clinic during its first year may be of interest.

One of the most difficult problems, in the beginning, was securing hearing aids. At first, they were secured entirely through salesmen. When a hard-of-hearing person came to the clinic for help, his audiogram was made, a salesman was contacted and the situation explained. The salesman fitted the instrument and allowed the person to wear it for a few days. The person then returned to the clinic where the aid was tested. The aid was then returned and another salesman contacted. This was continued until the subject made a selection. The salesman in the Trenton area for the instrument chosen was then notified and the rest of the negotiations were carried on between the subject and the salesman. This procedure worked very well until some salesmen refused to cooperate with the clinic on the grounds that only confusion resulted from allowing persons to try more than one aid. It then became evident that, in order to be impartial and free from the pressure that salesman can sometimes exert, the clinic would have to secure instruments for its use directly from the manufacturer. Letters were sent to manufacturers advertising in the *Volta Review*. Six responded enthusiastically and sent hearing aids.

Another knotty problem, which the clinic had to face, was that of interesting the otologists of the city of Trenton in using the services provided by the clinic. Letters describing these services and urging the use of them were sent to 10 leading otologists of Trenton. The response was anything but encouraging. Appeals to Dr. Fowler and Dr. Nash, however, brought suggestions, which have done much to promote this vital relationship between the otologist and the clinic.

The question of proper publicity is a continuous problem. Determining means of getting the facts about the clinic to those who need its services, without misrepresentation or overstatement, calls for a

good deal of thought. This particular problem, however, seems to be working out nicely.

An interesting application of the pure-tone technique used in the hearing-aid-testing clinic is being made to group aids in the classrooms of the New Jersey school. Audiograms of the children of one class are now being taken by means of the audiometer, amplifier, loudspeaker hook-up. Later the pure tones from the loudspeaker will be passed through the microphone, amplifier, earphone assembly of the group aid, which is used in the classroom, to each child and his audiogram taken with the aid. The gains with the aid will be noted at each frequency and added algebraically to his original audiogram taken through the receiver of the audiometer. It will then be possible to determine how the group aid improves his hearing threshold, and particularly, whether or not his hearing threshold has been improved to the extent that speech discrimination is possible. New equipment, which is anticipated, will be evaluated to some extent upon this basis.

CURRICULUM CONTENT

Leader, Roy G. Parks, Georgia School.

Paper: The Relation of Achievement Tests to the Curriculum, Sam B. Craig, principal, Kendall School.

Paper: Latest Developments in Testing in Schools for the Deaf, Richard G. Brill, principal, Virginia School.

THE RELATION OF ACHIEVEMENT TESTS TO THE CURRICULUM

(SAM B. CRAIG, principal, Kendall School)

"Curriculum" and "course of study" have been generally regarded as synonymous terms. A large number of writers in the field now regard the school curriculum as including all experiences children have under the guidance of teachers or the sum total of the learning experiences. The course of study is the syllabus which is furnished to teachers to help guide the learning experiences of their pupils. It is with this somewhat limited aspect of the curriculum that the achievement tests are more closely related.

The achievement test is an instrument for measuring attainment in all school work. It is sufficiently comprehensive to give reliable measures of achievement of individual pupils. Moreover it may be used to determine the levels of achievement of pupils; it may be used for purposes of promotion, for school records of achievement, for classification, and for general analysis of achievement of a school, class, or pupil.

In general the uses to which test scores may be put fall under two main divisions; namely, administration and guidance. However, there is no clear-cut line of demarcation between the two areas. Perhaps the most common use of test scores from an administrative point of view is that which involves checking the educational achievement of the school against national norms, an analysis of achievement within the school, or a study of general teaching efficiency. It is important to remember that the standardized tests should never be used to mold the curriculum. This would lead to a stereotyped

kind of education. It is better to permit the curriculum to develop normally and to take into account local conditions when interpreting local achievement in terms of national norms.

For the past 10 years standard achievement tests have been used freely in schools for the deaf. The exact use and results have, no doubt, varied from school to school. Frequently there arises the question as to whether we have not gone too far in the use of such tests; whether we put too much dependence upon them or not; and whether they really measure the teaching efficiency of our schools. On the whole there can be little doubt but that they are helpful. The extent to which they are valuable depends upon an understanding of the tests used, the problem to which they are applied, and the interpretation of the results.

One thing to remember in the use of test results is that the norms are indicative of the results which may be expected under average teaching if the pupils tested are similar in background and knowledge to those for whom the test was standardized. This is not the case where deaf children are concerned. However, the national norms do offer a goal to be achieved. The local norms, or the norms within the school, set up standards for pupil achievement, permit measurement of pupil progress, stimulate teachers, and motivate pupils.

For a number of years we have used the Stanford Achievement Tests in the Kendall School. We have found this series helpful but have observed a number of interesting things in connection with its use.

It is not necessary to explain here that any test given deaf pupils is primarily a language test.

An examination of a characteristic profile chart of a class of deaf pupils will show the average grade equivalent falling considerably below that for a normal group of hearing children of the same age. This retardation is generally explained as being a result of language limitation and isolation due to deafness.

The profile chart of the average deaf pupil shows the following peculiarities in the scores for the subtests:

"Paragraph meaning" (reading) falls considerably below his average grade level. This is to be expected where language development presents the greatest problems for the deaf. It is singular that the one activity from which the deaf could gain so much, and not need hearing, is so difficult for them.

"Word meaning" falls below the average line, too. These deviations from the norm point to the necessity of stressing those subjects in the curriculum and of getting the greatest efficiency in teaching those subjects.

The results on the language usage (grammar) test are surprisingly high. One explanation of this is that the deaf child has not established poor grammar habits from association and is tested on only what he has learned in school.

High standing is attained in arithmetic reasoning and an even higher standing in arithmetic computation. Where language is involved, the subject is more difficult.

The poor results on the literature test have caused us considerable worry. This test has been subject to criticism in a number of ways. In schools for hearing children where the reading course is adapted to

the interests of the pupils and no definite limits are set for the grade, the test is omitted as not valid for the course. In our schools we have to consider the inherent language weakness of our pupils, the slowness with which the material is covered, and the stress on understanding rather than speed. A more careful organization of the reading course, a better selection of tests, emphasis on reading skill and speed would undoubtedly improve this condition.

The grade level reached in the social studies compares favorably with the average grade level.

The results in general science are low. In our particular case upon studying the results of our testing program we found we were neglecting that part of the curriculum dealing with the teaching of science. With our attention focused on the problem, better texts were chosen, more time was allowed, and a better integrated science program was set up. The results were gratifying.

We omit the spelling test as being too difficult to administer.

A general observation in organizing our classes is that the pupils do better with the textbooks of a grade or two below their grade level on the achievement test. This is logical when it is remembered that the reading ability is below the grade level of the test as a whole. Stated in another way the tests rate the pupils higher than they should when language ability is considered the basic subject.

The two following reports on the use of subject tests suggest ways in which the testing program can aid in carrying out the curriculum more efficiently.

As part of a recent study made by Mr. Roy Moore Stelle 68 students in the preparatory and freshman classes at Gallaudet College were given the Iowa Silent Reading Tests, new edition, advanced form. The silent reading ability of the subjects was compared with norms established for the test. The test group averaged slightly below the norm for hearing students of the same grade levels in silent reading ability. The test group ranked highest in poetry comprehension and better than the norm for hearing students in this skill. The test group had a higher ranking than the hearing norm in poetry comprehension, rate and comprehension, and in the location of information. It was below in direct reading, word meaning, paragraph comprehension, and sentence meaning.

The purpose of this study was to determine where teachers of the deaf are falling down in the teaching of silent reading to their pupils. Although no explanation is offered for the above variations in test results, an administrator might take the results to his teacher and study the curriculum for the purpose of improving the presentation of the subject and getting better results.

Reporting on research and testing at Gallaudet College to the Eighteenth Meeting of the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, Prof. Irving S. Fushfeld gave the results of tests given to candidates for admission. One test used was the Breslich Algebra Survey test, first and second semesters. The scores of 144 candidates were compared with the norms established for 5,963 high-school pupils. The results indicated that schools were preparing candidates for the first half year of the customary course in high-school algebra. For the second half year the results were poor. The conclusion was that our schools are not covering the

amount of ground in this subject required for admission to college or usually covered in 1 year of high school work.

It is our belief that the testing program and in particular the use of achievement tests have a very definite place in the curriculum. However, they should be used with a knowledge of their limitations, and allowances should be made for the local situation when they are used.

LATEST DEVELOPMENTS IN TESTING IN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF

(RICHARD G. BRILL, Principal, Virginia School)

In my part of this discussion I intend to review briefly what has been done in intelligence testing in schools for the deaf, and report on two discoveries we have made in California in connection with the testing of reading with the deaf. Much of the work in testing with the deaf has added to our store of knowledge about the deaf child and his problems, but has not given us much practical help to improve our teaching. We hope that the research that we have done in connection with reading, while very minor in nature, may be of a little practical benefit.

The educators of the deaf of the nineteenth century were primarily interested in the practical problem of education. As a result, most of the educational journals of their time are filled with discussions as to the benefits of the various methods of instruction. Regardless of the method adhered to, most educators of that time agreed that certain cases seemed incapable of receiving much education in spite of the method involved, and so an interest in the problem of the feeble-minded developed. Although some subjective methods were used to attempt to classify certain children earlier, it was not until 1906 that a standard psychological test was given to deaf children. This experiment was carried on by MacMillan and Bruner, and the deaf children tested showed from 3 to 4 years retardation behind hearing children, which has happened again and again right up to the present time in psychological studies of the deaf.

Dr. Rudolf Pintner has done a great service for all people interested in testing and psychological research with the deaf. In the book *The Psychology of the Physically Handicapped* by Pintner, Eisenson, and Stanton, Dr. Pintner is responsible for the chapter entitled "The Deaf." In this chapter are brought together the information that has been slowly accumulating in very diverse periodicals, journals, and reports over the years right up to and including 1940.

Four general types of intelligence tests have been administered to deaf children. These are Binet tests, performance tests, group non-language tests, and learning tests.

Pintner and Paterson attempted to use the Binet test as far back as 1915. All methods of communication—i. e., speech, writing, signs, and manual spelling—were attempted. But the tests did not work for several reasons. The principal reason, of course, was the language factor. But the testers also felt that lack of experience with such things as money and stamps also handicapped the deaf child.

Six studies have been published since 1933, all of which reported the use of one or more performance scales in testing groups of deaf children. The average IQ of the groups reported in these studies ranged from 88.5 to 95.2. Pintner states that these six findings are very similar considering the differences in sampling involved. The median of the six values gives an approximate IQ of 91 for deaf children on performance tests of intelligence.

The Pintner nonlanguage mental test is the intelligence test which has been used most frequently with deaf pupils. It has been used in two large surveys, one by Reamer in 1921 and one by the National Research Council, which was published in 1928. Both surveys divided their groups of subjects into various categories dependent upon such factors as age, age of onset of deafness, type of deafness, and amount of hearing loss. But averaging all of the results establishes an IQ of 86 as an approximate estimate of the intelligence of deaf children on group nonlanguage intelligence tests.

The Goodenough "draw a man" test has been given to three small samples (330, 390, and 330) and the three reports are very inconsistent in the results they report. The averages reported were 80, 88, and 96. The varied results are probably due to differences in methods of sampling.

Pintner and Paterson found the deaf to be 2 to 3 years retarded in learning tests where digits are substituted for symbols. They used this test in 1916, before the introduction of the modern type of intelligence test, but their results were borne out by the later findings of the group tests which we have reported above.

A brief summary of the facts that have been determined by research workers in the field of intelligence testing with the deaf brings out that:

1. The average IQ of the deaf does not quite reach 90.
2. General results of learning tests corroborate the findings on the intelligence tests proper.
3. The age of the onset of deafness seems to make no difference in the intelligence of the child.
4. There seems to be no difference on the average between the intelligence of the congenitally and of the adventitiously deaf.

All of the tests that have been used test concrete intelligence, as contrasted with abstract intelligence. So far, all tests of abstract intelligence have been based on language and are, therefore, useless with the deaf. Because of this we know nothing about the abstract intelligence of the deaf. Pintner states that a nonlanguage test which correlates highly with verbal or abstract intelligence is needed in the field of mental testing with the deaf.

The only value that has been validly claimed for the various performance scales and nonlanguage tests has been in group surveys. From a practical standpoint this is not of much help to the school giving the test. What is really needed to help the teacher and the administrator is a test which is accurate enough to be of value in the diagnosis of individuals. Most of the tests pick out the very slow children. But teachers do not have much trouble in recognizing these cases. It is of more practical value to be able to pick out those whose intelligence is above average. Many of these children are not recognized as such by their teachers because they may not be doing work

that is above average. The cause may be poor foundation, emotional maladjustment, poor teaching, or some other factor. If we are able to determine the capabilities of the child, we are much more likely to be able to help him.

In the field of educational-achievement testing in general, all teachers of the deaf are aware that deaf children are retarded due to the language handicap. The average retardation is about 3 or 4 years, which in terms of an educational quotient is about 70.

Achievement tests in general are used by most of our schools, and probably all of these schools use at least one or more standardized reading test. Most well standardized tests come in two or more parallel forms. If a child is tested with Form A and then immediately tested on parallel Form B, his scores should be nearly identical. These tests are standardized on hearing children, and with hearing children the results obtained are generally reliable. Many schools give their children a reading test and then after a certain learning period, possibly a semester or a year, the parallel form of the test is given to measure the improvement. The reason for giving the parallel forms is that the children will not have the advantage derived from taking the same test twice. However, we have found in the California School that in the case of the Gates reading test and the My Weekly Reader reading tests, the parallel forms are not reliable for deaf children. A child's score may vary by 2 or 3 years when tested on 2 successive days on what are supposed to be parallel forms of the same test. So if one form of a test is given at the beginning of a learning period, and another form at the end of a learning period, the difference in the scores is not a true measure of what the child has learned. Therefore, it is very important that the same form be administered both times when it is desired to measure the progress of a deaf child in reading. This situation is quite possibly true of other reading and achievement tests commonly used with the deaf.

The unreliability of these forms is probably due to two factors. First of all, in a short test each point affects the grade score a great deal. In other words, if a child misses one point, it may affect his grade score by several months. Secondly, in a particular question a test may use a word that is synonymous with a word used in the same question in the parallel form. If a hearing child knows one of the synonyms, he will probably know the other. But this is not necessarily true with the deaf child. It only takes two or three questions with words unfamiliar to the deaf child for him to get a poor score. When he takes the parallel form and knows the synonyms for these words he gets a good score. The same thing holds true for familiarity with the situation or experience being described. Hearing children have had far more natural experiences than deaf children, and some forms of reading tests happen to be loaded with paragraphs that are beyond the realm of natural activity of children who are brought up in a residential school. If the tests were longer, the hard and the easy would tend to balance out. But in these two particular tests at least, such is not the case.

In the California School Mr. Marshall S. Hester, supervising teacher of the advanced department, has kept graphs of the Stanford achievement scores in each subject for each child over a period of several years. We have noticed that the point marked "fourth grade" is the

crucial point in reading achievement. The children who get over this hurdle and are able to score up in the fifth grade tend to keep on advancing to a seventh-, eighth-, or ninth-grade level. The children who level off in reading, do so at the fourth-grade level. Not many level off before reaching this point, and not many stop at the fifth or sixth grade. If we could find the specific skills necessary to get beyond the fourth-grade level, and could do something about them, we might be able to make a material contribution to our reading problem.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Leader: Dr. Tom L. Anderson, principal, vocational department, Iowa school; chairman, Arthur G. Norris, vocational principal, Missouri school.

Panel discussion: Ways and means of obtaining attributes of speed, skill, and personality—same panel members as on Tuesday.

Report of section leader, Dr. Anderson.

Mr. NORRIS. When we closed yesterday, we were talking about aims. Where are we going? What are we trying to do? A gentleman came up to me this morning and talked about speed. Our pupils are very well trained, but they do not work fast enough to make money for their employers. The question this morning is, What are some ways and means of obtaining the attributes of speed, skill, and personality?

Mr. COATS. The problem of speeding up our boys has been one of the largest that has come before me in many years. The chief difficulty is the environment. Since we have a school environment, it isn't conducive to speed. Pupils consider it a place where they learn and not work. I have tried some experiments which may interest you. Once in awhile I have occasion to do work after school hours, and I hire my best boys to help me. I tell them that I will pay them so much an hour. They work much faster than in class. I ask them why? The explanation is, "I am earning a little money, and it is my duty to work faster." Grades are not so powerful as the reward of money. What can we do about that? I have dreamed that some day we could set up a system whereby we might pay the pupils for their work in the shop, and the pupil pay for his board and room. This will give them a sense of responsibility.

Mr. HARRIS. I built a house and used some of the boys to help me on Saturdays. They were instructed as to how they were to work. They really produced results. Each of the boys is now following the carpentry trade and is employed. In school he does not get the practical side of carpentry work, by having to make many articles at once.

Dr. ANDERSON. Set a time limit on each project. The instructor should set a time and have him shoot for that goal. This should be followed consistently throughout the vocations. The time limit should be made to come nearer and nearer the standard time limit.

Mr. WOODEN of Michigan. Permit the boy to get primary training in the shop, then go out to work with a carpenter or other workmen. There is a coordinator and workman. In this connection, Mr. Jackson, of Nebraska, has quite an elaborate system worked out on each type of job with a time limit.

Mr. NORRIS. The weakness there is the tremendous amount of paper work.

Dr. ANDERSON. Do you believe that a teacher should stand at a pupil's elbow and show him where he loses time and motion? I claim that accuracy and speed go together and make for skill.

Mr. QUIGLEY. In learning to type, the first emphasis is accuracy; then comes speed. Why not give the pupils a test from time to time during the year, something on the order of speed tests in typing?

Mr. BARNES. I found to my regret that in spelling I learned to spell incorrectly. If the person learns to do the right thing at first, the pupil will tend to do the job correctly at all times.

Mr. NORRIS. There is a very definite carry-over from one situation to another. We must keep in mind that accuracy comes first; speed comes with production.

Mr. BARNES. Have the pupil work for money when he is in school to obtain more practical training and learn to operate with the public.

Mr. NORRIS. How are we going to be able to cover all the array of skills? The question is, What are we shooting at?

Mr. BARNES. There is no definite place for the pupil to gain speed in our schools. We have to remember they are adolescents.

Mr. SMITH. We should teach them that when they leave school they should realize that they will have to do work with greater speed.

Dr. ANDERSON. We should emphasize to the pupil that he should synchronize his speed with that of the school and with his job.

Mr. BARNES. Our pupils get attitudes not alone from the school, but from the outside community and other workers.

Mr. NORRIS. A suggestion has been made that we postpone the time of vocational training until the last 2 or 3 years in school.

Mr. COATS. We know that our pupils are young. They cannot very well speed up in school. Many times school facilities do not make for speed and production. Insist on an attitude of wanting to speed up. How far can we go in telling the pupils that out in the world and in industry they have to speed up? Are we giving them an inferiority complex and discouraging them?

Mr. WENGER. In connection with speed I think we should be careful to explain what we mean by speed. We get speed by first concentrating on the job; second, by saving time by eliminating lost or wasted motion. We do not want waste motion, we want a saving of time.

Dr. ANDERSON. Speed is the absence of lost motion.

Mr. WOODEN. I came up through schools for the hearing. In public schools we judge what they do by their home environment. They do not assume enough responsibility as pupils. Reduce the load of the house, parent, or supervisor to enable a certain amount of home training.

Mr. BARNES. Through the general shop, we might develop a sense of responsibility in the pupils.

Dr. ANDERSON. Before we close I want to submit for the record my report as vocational section leader.

VOCATIONAL SECTION LEADER'S REPORT

(Dr. TOM L. ANDERSON, vocational principal, Iowa School)

Having been closely identified, for a number of years, with the advancement of the vocational section programs in the Convention of

American Instructors of the Deaf, I am keenly interested in the reaction of the profession to the conclusions reached by the people of the vocational section, after close discussion of their common problems. A fairly accurate report of the section meetings has been a part of the complete proceedings of each convention, subject to study and discussion by those who give the profession the beneficent illumination of their ideas through the medium of the L. P. F. My interest has been to determine if the formal deliberations of our vocational training specialists exert any influence upon the trends of our professional thinking, and especially upon the development of the vocational training programs in the various schools. I am inclined to believe that the deliberations and conclusions of the section within the convention staffed by people most closely identified with vocational training and in the best position to speak with authority, have been largely ignored.

The single exception, which prompts my remarks, is the first-page article in the Tennessee School Observer for December, discussing the Berkeley Convention vocational teachers' agreement that the best vocational set-up would be one "calling for the maximum amount of academic work and the minimum amount of vocational training in the earlier years, with a reversal of the proportions as the pupil reaches maturity, the course at the end of the pupil's school life calling for full-time training." This agreement, the Observer opines, is "a revolutionary idea which deserves careful consideration." The Observer proceeds to develop a practical understanding of the application of this plan, and apparently agrees that there is some good in it.

The application of this plan would require, as the Observer notes, "radical changes in the established educational procedures." Herein, I believe, lies the inherent weakness in 99 percent of the ideas, born of experience, advanced by our vocational training specialists, for materially improving the results of their work. Herein may possibly lie the reason why these ideas are allowed to lie on the table, in reverberating silence.

Meanwhile, a continuous rumble of demand goes on for improvement in our program of education for practical life. The public demands it. The organized alumni demand it. Academic teachers write learnedly for the Annals on phases of vocational training, quoting everyone except their own vocational training specialists. Executives, placed somewhat on the defensive, explain what their schools are doing, and play up the fact that their graduates are engaged in a wide diversity of occupations. The perennial discussion of the division of time between the academic and the vocational departments has about died down, possibly in the realization that there are precious few minutes to be gained one way or the other. Attention is now centered upon the development of extracurricular activities. Nowhere appears any disposition to effect "radical changes in the established educational procedures." It is apparent that if we are to get anything out of the deliberations of the vocational section at Fulton, we shall have to go back and start from scratch. I would like to speak plainly about the preparations being made for another vocational section program at Fulton.

At our conventions, if members of the profession have any practical ideas on the subject of how to effect major improvements in the

vocational training program without in any way altering the existing educational set-up, it is their duty to lay these ideas on the table. If they are willing to alter the set-up, let it go on the record. If they are not willing to alter the set-up, let it likewise go on the record.

In view of the importance attached to the subject, it is unfortunate that the numerous counterattractions at a convention should operate to prevent executives and academic teachers from attending even a single session of the vocational section, where the specialists might have the benefit of their constructive suggestions. We are left to fall back upon the occasional published addresses, articles in the annals, and L. P. F. comment for an insight into what our educators are thinking, outside of the vocational specialists' group.

Where we formerly went in for correlation, and spent much time and thought trying to find practical ways to introduce vocational related matter into the academic classes, and academic teaching methods into the vocational classes, we seem to have swung clear around to the other extreme. We find considerable sympathy centered about the radical suggestion that the sole remaining hope of the vocational training specialists accomplishing the task for which they are held responsible is to separate the advanced vocational training program from the environment of elementary academic training. (The Need of Separating Advanced Vocational Training From the Elementary School Atmosphere, Harvey B. Barnes in the November 1940 Annals.) This brings us squarely back to the recommendation of the vocational section at the Berkeley convention, in that it is a logical development of that recommendation.

Only when we can expect to work along normal lines with mature pupils who possess sufficient basic education to understand what it is all about, freed from the multiple distractions of a general educational program, can we hope to put over the serious training of a trade-school nature, required if the pupil is to pass from school to job. Those who believe we are getting trade-school results out of adherence to a program devised years ago for the introduction of manual training are simply deluding themselves.

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Leader: George W. Harlow, Pennsylvania School.

Paper, A Program for Physical Education Today—in Preparation for Tomorrow, Donald R. Caziarc, Pennsylvania School.

A PROGRAM FOR PHYSICAL EDUCATION TODAY—IN PREPARATION FOR TOMORROW

(DONALD R. CAZIARC, Pennsylvania School)

How many persons, individually or collectively, have actually sat down and defined the term "physical education"? And, after that, how many have asked the question, Why do we place emphasis on physical education? There is scarcely a single teacher or administrator, of a progressive mind, that hesitates to admit the growing need for new activities and supplementary materials which will enrich the development of our children, young men, and young women today. In schools of progressive thought, such activities have been provided—

but for what? Is it solely for the purpose of developing a strong mind and body? Is it to develop socially useful and self-dependent individuals? Is it to create cooperative habits and a spirit of lifelong sportsmanship? Briefly, it takes little imagination to point out the fact that none of these can be divorced from the others without sacrificing the underlying principles of progressive thought.

Physical education is more than a course of study designed to create "Greek gods" in 10 easy lessons—it is, moreover, the foremost extracurricular activity in our present educational system. But, it has its failings; and, schools for the deaf, we must admit, are among those who have been sidetracked.

Every course of study has a set of definite objectives; and physical education is no exception. On the contrary, its objectives can be farther reaching than any other single activity. It not only prepares youth physically to meet the "knocks" of life, but it also develops attitudes that are frequently overlooked in the run-of-the-mill academic courses.

We have often heard the already trite saying: "Develop an activity to satisfy the need of each and every child." The theory behind that beautiful idea is a Platonic dream—far beyond the conception of the average school for the deaf whose annual "nemesis," the budget, curtails the unlimited expenditures involved in such a program. Let us, therefore, consider developing a program of physical education for today that can be carried over into life tomorrow.

CORRECTIVE GYMNASTICS

The thrice-important corrective gymnastics in the school for the deaf cannot be stressed too lightly. Although nearly every school's department of athletics has, in one form or another, done something toward corrective work, there has been little in the way of a well-planned program. Chief among the physical needs of many deaf children is special emphasis on carriage, rhythm in physical activities, and walking. The Lexington School in New York has experimented with just such a program. Furthermore, their eurythmics program of interpretive dancing and calisthenics has proved most useful in speech development. However, this specific program will not satisfy every school.

Pride is a psychological factor that many of us fail to recognize as a key to success in this corrective work. Every deaf child likes to have his picture taken. Every child, deaf or hearing, is willing and ready to boast of his square shoulders, high chest, and strong muscles. It has been proved that a regular period of mass calisthenics drill, with perfection as a goal, can be organized. Proper introduction and interest must be worked out first. Movies of sports, body building, and European physical education exhibitions always interest young boys and girls. Special emphasis should be placed on rhythm, however, and its relation to the physical development. After the seed of interest has been sown, then the program may be inaugurated. Interest may be aroused by having a contest for posture posters. Individual class contests may be held over a period of 1 month. Prizes should be awarded to those pupils who have the best posture and carriage, and to those who show the greatest im-

provement. Then, don't fail to publish the names or pictures of the winners in the school magazine or newspaper. Outdoor exhibitions of mass precision drill and calisthenics can easily be made popular with the deaf—especially if the big show is advertised. And, remember, newspapers are always ready to be on hand for such demonstrations.

That howl of protest from the coach's bench can already be heard—"What are we going to use for time? Must we sacrifice the major sports for such a program?" Agreed. Time is an important factor, especially in schools where the children are in classes from 8 a. m. to 4 p. m. every school day, and have only an hour or two for recreation in the afternoon. But let's consider the program to be proposed from an idealistic viewpoint. Every effort should be made to develop and perpetuate a corrective program. Strong, straight bodies and rhythmic, precise movement in work, play, and on the street are essential to good health and attractive personalities.

VALUE OF MAJOR SPORTS

A word or two about the major sports—football, basketball, baseball, and other team sports. The value of these has been proved over and over again. Each sport instills a cooperative team spirit; it creates an attitude of good sportsmanship, and it develops a feeling of school loyalty. These are attitudes that are carried on after the pupils leave school.

One sport that seems to have been underemphasized until the past 2 years by schools for the deaf is track. This, in my opinion, and there is plenty of room for debate, is the one team sport that gives the individual a chance to really develop physically, and, in addition, to create that spirit of perseverance lacking in so many of our young deaf folks. Many more boys can compete in this sport than in any other of the major sports. Intramural track meets are always popular, especially at the close of the season or at the beginning of the fall semester. Track and field events stress form, rhythm, and perseverance—those qualities for which we are all striving.

INDIVIDUAL RECREATIVE SPORTS

Some schools for the deaf have established evening recreation hours. In the winter months indoor badminton, table tennis, and other individual sports have taken the limelight. The spring semester offers an opportunity for the individual to participate in tennis, horseshoes, outdoor badminton, quoits, archery, and swimming, where facilities are available.

Scouting is an extracurricular activity that has done much to encourage hiking as a kind of sport. This physical activity is one that the deaf may carry over into their post-school years. It is an inexpensive sport, an excellent form of exercise, and very healthful.

The recent popularizing of bowling and cycling are sports that can be participated in by the deaf, though both are in the luxury class. They are, however, sports that will bring the deaf in close contact with hearing people, a very desirable and, for today more

than ever before, the deaf have an opportunity to prove themselves capable of doing the same things their hearing associates do.

The following outline is a proposed program designed to give the deaf boy and girl a well-rounded physical education that he will want to carry on in later life. It might be used in the late intermediate and the advanced grades.

I. Introduction:

A. Purpose:

1. To acquaint the pupils with all physical activities.
2. To stress the importance of a strong body and good health.

B. Method:

1. Information about the activities:
 - a. Movies.
 - b. Reading.
 - c. Demonstrations.
 - d. Participation.

II. Administration:

A. Leadership:

1. Athletic director and
2. Director of extracurricular activities.

B. Planning the program:

1. Poster contests:
 - a. Good health.
 - b. Clubs.
 - c. Posture.
2. Interclass and intramural contests:
 - a. Individual sports.
 - b. Team sports.
3. Class work in the gymnasium and on the field:
 - a. Callisthenics.
 - b. Corrective exercises and eurythmics.
 - c. Team sports.

C. Final goal:

1. Annual spring "field day" or athletic exhibition:
 - a. Precision drill.
 - b. Pyramid building.
 - c. Exhibitions of individual sports.

SOCIAL AND CHARACTER TRAINING

Leader: Rae Martino, Waterbury, Conn.; chairman, Edmund B. Boatner, superintendent, American School at West Hartford, Conn.

Paper: Social and Character Training in a Day-School, John F. Grace, principal, Gallaudet Day-School, St. Louis, Mo.

Paper: A Supervisors' Association—Aims and Objectives, Eudora Hale, Missouri School.

SOCIAL AND CHARACTER TRAINING IN A DAY SCHOOL

(JOHN F. GRACE, principal, Gallaudet Day School, St. Louis, Mo.)

I believe most teachers of not only the deaf, but of hearing children as well, would agree that social and character training might be classified as perhaps the most important problems that we must face in the process of education. Of course, we admit that all phases of education are important, but if at the end of our efforts we find that we have not built into the individuals who came under our influence those elements of good character and proper social adjustment, I personally feel that our efforts have been a failure. From one standpoint, we might

even have done that poorly adjusted individual an injustice. Isn't it possible that he may have gained the knowledge, growth, and ability, to go out into society and become just the opposite of that which we had hoped for? On the other hand, if he has been properly guided, properly advised, and properly adjusted socially, during his school life, the possibilities for his success and happiness in life are encouraging. Just so long as our schools can turn out a high percentage of well adjusted, properly trained and happy individuals, the greater chance have our democratic ideals of society to survive.

Every school has its problem children; those children whose school progress is erratic and uncertain, whose personalities show traits that we must be concerned about, and whose behavior is troublesome. No matter what the difficulty, it is our concern as teachers and administrators to do everything in our power to help these individuals. It may happen that in many cases we do not patiently and intelligently face, with the individuals, these difficult situations. The suspension or dismissal blank may be used too frequently and too hastily. This type of action is not the way to face the issue but is an expedient manner to get rid quickly of a difficult situation. However, we are fortunate that the last several years have brought forth better methods, based upon an understanding of the nature of the child, his home life, and the influences which are causing his difficulties. We often find that the child's difficulties are due to influences of the neighborhood, home, or the school and not to the child himself.

This logically leads up to the source from which character training, or lack of such training, springs and touches those forces which influence the character of a child; in short, the home, the neighborhood, and the school.

In present-day society, with the mother so often employed and out of the home or in case of the many broken homes, the forceful home training and parental guidance for children have been somewhat lost. We have social centers and various organizations which are attempting to take the place, as far as possible, of the old fashioned home. But, they can only help to a limited extent. There simply is no substitute for the close supervision and advice of the parents in a good home.

Not so many years ago, as perhaps many of you can remember, the function of the school was to teach the children reading, writing, and arithmetic. It was not considered the proper thing for the school to enter into any problems pertaining to the home. That was not the school's business, but now, more and more the social problem is being thrust toward the school. Are we to accept the challenge and meet this problem or are we to ignore it? If we do accept it, just how are we to proceed with so tremendous a task? Space and time do not allow any attempt to answer this question.

Up to this point the remarks have been of a general nature concerning education of children in general. This was done with the thought in mind that, after all, the education of the deaf child, and the problems that we face with him, are not so different from those of the normal hearing child. The problems, perhaps, may be a little more difficult to solve but essentially the same psychology must be used. Especially is this true of the modern day school for the deaf, such as the Gallaudet School in St. Louis. This school is so very closely associated with the regular elementary schools, that the similarity of the problems are exceedingly evident to those of us who are associated with the school.

Now that the attempt has been made to show that the home and school problems are so closely allied, I should like to show our procedure in dealing with the social and character training at the Gallaudet Day School.

It might be well to give first a general picture of the school and follow this with some specific case studies.

The Gallaudet School has an enrollment which varies from 65 to 75 pupils. It is located in about the geographical center of the city and children come to the school by bus or on streetcars from all parts of the city. We have 9 regular academic teachers, a home economics, and a manual training teacher. The average enrollment per teacher is 7 or 8 children.

Since these children come from all parts of a city as large as St. Louis, you will easily understand that we have a fair cross section of the social levels of the city. We have children from the poorer homes, the average, and some from above-average homes. Naturally we encounter social problems of practically all kinds. However, the difficult problems to handle are not so numerous as one might expect from a situation of this kind and by using a democratic method of procedure in the school, we find that practically all the children soon adjust themselves in a very satisfactory manner.

The general plan that we follow in Gallaudet Day School will be discussed and a few conclusions drawn but it is not to be assumed that the plan is a model to follow; in fact, this problem of character and social training is as varied as there are individuals in your school. No plan will work the same with any two individuals, it is such an intangible thing, but what we do is to try to follow a general plan and then take care of those problems of an individual nature as they arise. We find that we have met with a fair measure of success, but much is still to be desired.

When a child enters the school, we get all the information that we possibly can from the parents. We like to know the cause of deafness, when and how it occurred, who the doctor is or what clinic the child is attending if any, his general behavior in the home, his attitude toward his affliction, and any other detailed information that the parent can give. Then in many cases the principal makes a home call. The home call is made incidentally, perhaps to deliver a Christmas basket or as just a "drop in" visit and not, so far as the parent knows, a specific purpose to visit the child in the home. We feel that this gives the person making the call a better chance to observe the child under the most natural conditions in his home. Then having obtained as much information as possible through the records and by the home visits, we feel that we have a fair knowledge of what to expect from the child coming from that home. At the same time, if you have been diplomatic in your conversation, you will have the parent working with you and this, of course, is of great importance.

Armed with the knowledge that we have of this individual, we can judge fairly well if he is a problem child, and, if he is a problem child, we may be able to break some of his objectionable habits before they become a part of his school behavior. For instance, that child whom the mother has spoiled by answering his every whim and desire, we immediately make him understand that since the other children take off their wraps themselves, he must also do so. That feeling of

independence must be established at the very onset. This is definitely social training.

As this child progresses through school and if he is a normally acting individual, as the great majority of them are, we simply follow our general plan of a democratic method of social adjustment which consists of teacher advice, guidance, and judgment in cooperation with the children themselves. We endeavor to make the children feel that they themselves are really solving the problems of behavior that arise. However, this procedure must be closely supervised by the teacher or the method becomes too drastic.

Character training is closely interwoven with the social training. The character traits that are built into a child during his formative age come more from his social contacts than from any formal teaching that can be done. Most children select someone whom they want to be like. Hero worship you may call it. The child may select his father or an older friend or, in a great many cases, he chooses his teacher as the one he wishes to follow. So the responsibility of setting the correct example falls upon all teachers. It is also our task to do everything possible to see that these developing children choose the right individuals to be their leaders. This process of training is almost constantly at work in our school.

Of course, socials, parties, and dances are a definite part of our social training and in addition we are encouraging the children to take part in as many outside activities as they possibly can. Many of the boys belong to hearing Scout troops and the girls take part in the Girl Scout activities. They are encouraged to go to their own churches and Sunday schools, and many of them do. All these things are of definite help in social and character training. In all these outside activities, we must necessarily call upon the home to help. The school and home must definitely go hand in hand if any degree of success is attained.

Thus far the discussion has been concerning that large group of children who tend to fall into quite a general plan of character and social training that may be followed. These are really not the individuals who give us grave concern. But those cases whom we might term "problem children" or those who so often upset the harmonious peaceful progress of a school. It might be well to turn our attention to a few of these cases and see what has been and can be done to help these individuals.

The case of John is strictly a case of parental attitude and is a true case, the name only being fictitious.

John lost his hearing at a very early age. He was a bright-faced lad when he entered school and was as bright as he looked. He loved to tinker with mechanical things. Any toy that was brought to his classroom, he wanted to take it apart. After school on his way home, he would fish around in ash pits to see if he could find something to take apart.

As he grew older and after he had been in school several years, his teacher began to miss articles from her room and eventually she found that John was taking them home. Upon inquiry, she found that he had a habit of acquiring everything in the way of knives, broken keys, old locks, and guns that he could get his hands on. He took these home and put them in a box under his bed, so he said.

The teacher worked with him in every possible manner. She talked with him, she brought the pressure of the opinion of the class to bear against him. He would simply return the stolen articles and say that he was sorry and would never do it again. His parents refused to consider the actions to be of any consequence.

Finally, when we thought that we had this boy straightened out, quite a valuable article suddenly disappeared from the school. All suspicions pointed to John but we did not wish to make the mistake of falsely accusing him of the act. A letter was sent from the school to all parents, asking them to return the article if a child had taken it home. No response was received from anyone. Three months later a friend of John came to the principal and told him that John had the article in his home. This gave the principal a fair opening to approach him and after due conversation, John was taken home to get the article which he had been keeping in his home during all those months.

It could be easily seen that this boy was simply fascinated by the article that he had taken. Even though he had sneaked it away from school while no one was looking, I do not believe it constituted in his mind, an act of stealing. John was not actually punished for this act. However, he, with the rest of the school, was given an object lesson and the wrongness of the act was carefully stressed. He was also taken to his parents, who, at first upheld him in what he had done. They would never admit that John had stolen. They just knew that some other boy, and they named the boy, had done the deed. They had accepted John's story that "some boy" had given him the article. However, it was evident to the principal that deep down in their hearts they knew, they, and not the boy had been to blame. They realized that the article was expensive and that they should have returned it. No argument occurred but an indirect lesson of cooperation on the part of the parent was left with them.

That incident happened 4 years ago. John has never taken anything since. His school work is excellent and he is one of our best all-around pupils. Also his parents are excellent workers for the school. They support our activities in every respect and we have every reason to believe they will continue to do so.

The case of Margaret is one of adjustment of herself and her parents to her handicap.

This child started in the regular kindergarten class in public school at 5 years of age. She had quite a loss of hearing but she was able to keep up with her class for 5 years. Her hearing steadily became worse. The child was unhappy in school. Her teachers did everything possible for her but still she resented the fact that she was losing her hearing. She made life rather miserable for her family at home and she did not play normally with her schoolmates.

Finally the parents were prevailed upon to send her to the Gallaudet Day School. Margaret is a very bright child and is younger than the girls in her class. When she arrived, the girls tried to accept her and encourage her, but soon she aggravated them in so many ways by her contrary spells, that they had little to do with her.

For 2 or 3 months Margaret's teacher worked and advised with her. Margaret often went to see a very kind friend of hers who also cooperated with our efforts. Eventually Margaret began to listen to

us. Her attitude slowly but surely changed. Her parents helped us by encouraging the child in every way possible.

This is her third year in school. She is absolutely happy and contented. She has been accepted by the other pupils in school and is doing excellent work.

The two cases above show the effort, patience, and understanding that must be used to help these problem children adjust themselves socially. Naturally, all cases cannot be solved but we can at least do all in our power before we give up. I could cite some cases of failure to solve these problems but the school must at least make a definite and thorough attempt to help these children if it is to meet the purpose for which it is established.

In conclusion, it would seem that many factors must be brought into play if we are to meet the important problem of social and character training. The school alone cannot do the job, but the school must, in this changing condition of society, cooperate with the homes, the neighborhood, and all social agencies, in doing all in its power to see that the children who come under its influence are as socially adjusted as it can make them and that those qualities of good character and citizenship are properly instilled into each individual.

A SUPERVISORS' ASSOCIATION—AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

(EUDORA HALE, Missouri School)

In the fall of 1940, the supervisors of the Missouri School met and with the faithful cooperation and assistance of both our superintendent, Mr. Truman L. Ingle, and our director of extracurricular activities, Mr. W. Burton Moore, we formed a local supervisors' association.

One of the main objects of our association is to try to raise the standard and prestige of supervisors in our school and eventually have a staff of supervisors who are better qualified to carry on their work. We have one business and one social meeting a month. At our business meetings, our adviser, Mr. Moore, is always present. He helps us settle our problems and every supervisor feels free to discuss any and all problems we have with him. Through these discussions we have at our business meetings, we have tried to work out some constructive ideas and we feel in time that we can accomplish more along this line. At our socials, the teachers and officers attend. In November, Mr. D. T. Henderson, superintendent of the Arkansas School, included in the Midwest Conference of Superintendents of Schools for the Deaf a conference of supervisors.

Since our local organization was comparatively new, Mr. Ingle selected our delegates with the approval of the association. At this conference were representatives from the Arkansas, Kansas, Oklahoma, Iowa, Tennessee, and Missouri schools. In all, 20 supervisors attended the first meeting of its kind and 3 of the schools represented had local organizations and 3 did not.

Most of the sessions during the conference were given over to round-table discussions with all supervisors taking part. Various problems that confront supervisors every day were discussed—work-

ing hours for supervisors, qualifications, and salaries were also discussed. And last, but not least, a training center in some particular school for the deaf was discussed. This would be very beneficial to all supervisors, and if it is ever made possible by some school it will make it possible to obtain better qualified people to fill the important places of supervisors, and thus lead to better all-around education for the deaf child.

The delegates present organized a permanent Midwest association. After a suggestion and an invitation it was decided that this organization would meet each year in conjunction with the meeting of superintendents from the same section.

The supervisors met one time with the superintendents of the six schools represented and with all the teachers of the Arkansas School. This meeting was indeed very beneficial to the supervisors. It was the first time the supervisors had had the privilege to discuss freely with superintendents their problems. Cooperation between teachers and supervisors was discussed at some length.

One of the plans of the Midwest association is to try to organize a national association of supervisors.

During the school year letters were mailed to practically all superintendents asking their opinion on such an organization; and while quite a few superintendents gave us encouragement along this line, more than a few gave objections. Those who objected base their objection on financial grounds or on the fact of there being too few supervisors to participate. This is where the school should come in. It should raise the salaries of supervisors and then expect more and better work and require especially trained supervisors, and also require them to attend conferences that will help them in their work.

The Midwest association hopes to establish perhaps regional associations before a national association. Each region might consist of six or eight schools which have practically the same organization. These schools could set a standard for their supervisors and gradually work toward that goal. Then the regional groups could join in organizing a national association. Approval of this plan must be obtained from all superintendents and whole-hearted cooperation must be obtained from every supervisor. Much is yet to be done before a national organization can be formed but it is in the making, and just because we have had objections does not mean that we are not going ahead, for we most decidedly are going to do our best to have a national organization. We're going to do our part in trying to make it possible to have supervisors who are really capable and of value in the education of children.

For years the supervisors were not considered a vital part of the school, but we believe that day is gone and that the sooner all people interested find this to be true, the sooner our organization will prove its worth to the schools.

As a summary these are the main objectives for our local and midwest association:

1. A training center established in some school for the deaf.
 2. Raise the salaries of supervisors and thus raise the standards.
- No one can expect an educated person to supervise for \$30 a month,

but if he or she does, there is some good reason for so doing, and that reason probably makes him ineligible as a good supervisor.

3. Encourage a merit system in each school for the work of supervisors so that they do not feel they have their nose to the wall and can advance no farther in the work.

4. Closer cooperation and a better understanding between teachers and supervisors.

5. More interest and pride in their chosen profession.

6. Help to organize a national association and encourage the organization of regional associations.

I feel that every supervisor owes Mr. Henderson, superintendent of the Arkansas School, a deep debt of gratitude for it was through his understanding of the supervisor's problem that prompted him to issue the first invitation to supervisors to meet in the Arkansas School, and I feel that a new era is about to open for all supervisors.

SECTION FOR DEAF TEACHERS

Leader: G. C. Farquhar, Missouri School.

Paper: The Approach to the Language Problem, James N. Orman, Illinois School.

Discussion: E. S. Foltz, D. Mudgett, and others.

[On the conclusion of the reading of the paper by Mr. Orman, a discussion was held on the question of the advisability of making the section an official part of the convention program. The outcome of the discussion was the appointment by Mr. Farquhar, section leader, of the following committee to study the question and report to the president of the convention at the next meeting: Richard B. Phillips, Indiana School, chairman; Mrs. T. L. Anderson, Iowa School; Alfred Caligiuri, Florida School.]

GENERAL SESSION, FRIDAY MORNING, JUNE 27, 1941

Chairman: Jackson A. Raney, superintendent, Indiana School.

Address: The Socio-Economic Adjustment of the Deaf, Mrs. H. T. Poore, superintendent, Tennessee School.

Adjournment.

The Friday morning general session of the thirty-second meeting of the convention of American Instructors of the Deaf convened in the auditorium of the Advanced School Building at 11 a. m., Mr. Jackson A. Raney, superintendent of the Indiana School, presiding.

Mr. RANEY. Ladies and gentlemen, we have come to the closing meeting of our program. Someone raised the question as to why Mrs. Poore, being the single-lady superintendent, should be placed at the last of the program by the executive committee. Of course, my reply was that they always saved the best for the last.

I do not know anyone who is better qualified to deal with the topic that has been assigned her, and I am very happy to present our gracious speaker from Tennessee, Mrs. H. T. Poore, who is going to speak on The Socio-Economic Adjustment of the Deaf. Mrs. Poore.

THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC ADJUSTMENT OF THE DEAF

(Mrs. H. T. POORE, superintendent, Tennessee School)

The well-adjusted individual is the result of a many-sided development, based on his inherent capacities, his physical heritage, and his basic, original nature.

In "Meeting Special Needs of the Individual Child," the Nineteenth Yearbook of the Elementary Principal's Section of the National Education Association, has the following listed as foundations for good adjustment:

1. Physical health.
2. Ability to face reality.
3. Ability to use intelligence in solving problems.
4. Feelings of security (sense of belonging).
5. Feelings of adequacy (not inferior).
6. Integration of discipline and freedom in one's life pattern.
7. Ability to understand and cooperate with one's fellows.
8. An understanding of one's physical and social environment.
9. Establishment of goals in life.
10. Abilities for self-expression, for creative living.
11. Ability to see one's self objectively and in perspective.
12. A constructive philosophy built upon acceptance of eternal change.

The faculties on which to build these foundations are harbored in the individual to varying degrees, and are awaiting the right situations to promote their establishment. Home, school, and organizations are the agencies primarily responsible for the stable construction of these foundations.

Home establishes the patterns of loves and hates, selfishness, or consideration, and all the attitudes which control our adjustments to other persons. They hinge primarily on family relationships, attitudes of parents toward each other, toward the children, and toward all others in the household.

School may find it feasible either to continue or to replace the patterns established by the home. School may even go a long way toward improving the home through the child or by way of direct efforts. There is fact, not fiction, in the story of the irate mother who during the summer vacation period led her daughter back to the office of the superintendent of a State school for the deaf and said, "I want you to make —— understand she is to stop bothering me. The first thing every morning she starts following me around and pestering me to get the house cleaned up. She's about to drive me crazy." By the time the superintendent's reaction to this situation was completed, he had succeeded in adjusting the parent to the child and had made no attempt to adjust the child to the parent. School creates the situations for the individual which will bring about the desirable response and these responses may be far reaching in their immediate and ultimate effects.

Organizations, more and more, are instituting procedures and co-operating with the home and the school toward the improvement in physical welfare, creating situations that will develop moral stamina and bringing about general betterment in financial and working conditions, all of which aid the individual in making proper adjustments.

From the day of his advent into the world, the human being must live with himself and live with others. Unless he is a mental non-entity, he must eventually accept both economic and civic responsibilities.

Lester Dix in *A Charter for Progressive Education*, says,

Every man needs—

1. To be secure in his world.
2. To exercise his capacities.
3. To be accepted by his fellows (man is a social animal).
4. To have some personal distinction—he wants individuality and self-hood.
5. To have a faith.

The child possesses in greater or less degree capacities for the production of these satisfactions. Man's duty is to provide the situations that will lead him into their realization.

Man comes into the world an adjusting animal. He adjusts to the needs of his body by taking food. He depends on his mother or some other individual to supply his food and adjusts to taking it when offered or going after it by his particular method when it is not forthcoming. From the first day, his life is one continuous round of adjustments which become increasingly complicated as growth develops and the complexities of a changing world create ever differing situations. Full adjustment requires the consideration and desirable development of the physical, emotional, intellectual, educational, spiritual, social, and economic sides of life. For the purpose of this discussion only the social and economic or the socio-economic will be considered.

While it may be possible to be socially adjusted without being economically adjusted and vice versa, efficient functioning in the intricacies of living requires the combination, if one is to face life realistically, happily, and usefully. Social adjustment begins first in life but it is dependent on economic situations or conditions. An analytic study of 104 first-grade normal children found that at the time a child arrives at school his information is closely related to the socio-economic status of the home. The home's social and economic problems come and go with the conditions of world, national, and local economics. Social living is dependent on economic security. Social adjustments come with economic adjustments. When the economic status of the individual has been lowered, his social status is affected. One's economic security is based on his ability to hold a job, which in turn may be dependent on his ability to adjust socially to his working environment, in which his social habits, attitudes, and feelings are factors. Thus we see that the social and economic are interdependent and for all practical purposes are almost inseparable in one's scheme of life.

An individual is socially adjusted when he can work with others intelligently, happily, and productively. He feels, acts, and thinks appropriately in the varied situations of common life and shows a balanced behavior toward his social environment. He is sensitive to the wants and needs of others, and does not view all situations from the self-need perspective. He is self-controlled. While he adapts himself to life as he finds it, he recognizes also that he may be a factor in the improvement of existing conditions and is alert to that responsibility. Social adjustment then is fitting into life situations and

making conditions better for life. The normalcy of an individual is measured by his ability to make social adjustments.

Today it is generally recognized that development of social habits, attitudes, and emotions is more important than training in school subjects and that this development should not be left to chance but must be definitely planned for. To bring about social adjustment is an educational objective of prime importance. To aid in the acquirement of this objective one must know that social behavior is a manifestation of personality—a reflection of attitudes and wants, that social intelligence is the ability to deal with people, that social adequacy and inadequacy have no definite points of separation, that the amount or kind of intelligence does not always determine social adequacy possibilities; some persons of low intelligence may adjust satisfactorily in certain situations while those of higher IQ's may fail utterly. One must know that mental growth and physical development do affect social development, and that academic progress and group adjustment are contributing factors to social adjustment.

Vital in the educational scheme for developing ability to adjust socially is the personnel which deals with the child. All adults working intimately with a child should be well adjusted and emotionally stable. The person who is not willing and able to analyze his own attitudes and reactions will fail in promoting social adjustments in others. This personnel must recognize that the child's surroundings should be entirely friendly and democratic, that he should have provided for him as many opportunities for social experiences as possible, that he should have the privilege of participating in the determination of the experiences he is to have, that he should be guided into situations that will aid in his self-adjustment, home adjustment, and group adjustment, that all approaches should be made from the perspective of the individual and the opportunity given him to participate in the activities in which he is vitally interested and which challenge him but also help him gain a feeling of security. He needs to be integrated into the group, to know that he is loved and wanted in his surroundings, to feel that school is worthy of his confidence and respect.

The best time for establishing attitudes and behavior trends is the first few years of life. Then every opportunity should be provided to enlarge the child's sphere of activity. He must learn to understand others if he hopes to get along with them. He must learn how to deal with others, how to respect the rights of others, how to be one among many, for which training objectives he needs a wealth of social contacts in play and in experiences. He needs encouragement, to be motivated by ideals, to feel a sense of duty, to experience success in achievement, and to possess worthy ambition.

The problem of social adjustment becomes the most acute at the period of adolescence and is especially intense during the economic stress of finding employment.

An individual may be considered to be economically adjusted when he is economically independent; that is, he is holding a job, earning the means to live decently and happily himself as well as providing adequately for the needs and happiness of his dependents. He is qualified by education and training for his job and possesses a basic foundation for adjusting to economic and industrial conditions that may involve future job changes.

Failure to adjust economically is due primarily to insufficient academic training and inadequate vocational training coupled with work habits and attitudes unacceptable in industry. Definitely, education and economic well-being are interdependent. Schools must foresee economic needs and situations and advance preparation for industrial demands and opportunities that will assure economic adjustment by giving training to meet the probable new situations. John W. Studebaker, United States Commissioner of Education, recently called attention to the expanding program of vocational preparedness, to the 1,000,000 defense workers in skilled and semiskilled occupations in regular vocational schools and classes, and admonished educators to look forward to the world reconstruction which must follow victory and begin to prepare youth and adult to insure the organization of peace upon an enduring basis.

There is nothing that will give a growing child more confidence in himself than the assurance that, at some time he will be able to take his place somewhere in the economic world and be able to make his own way without dependence upon parents, relatives, or government. A young person's future happiness is dependent upon his interests, aptitudes, and ambitions. Therefore, careful consideration is given to his potentialities when he is led to make a vocational choice. The modern school, through vocational guidance and counseling services, determines in what occupation individuals will be able to produce the largest returns for themselves and for society, then guides them into the training that will fit them for the occupation.

Guidance, one of the most valuable tools in the modern school, now involves complete adjustment of the individual—educational, social, spiritual, cultural, vocational, and moral. The complexity of vocations requires this service in order to fit the work to the worker. Guidance and training, however, cannot produce all skilled workers. Although every individual has the right to develop to the extent of his capacities, early recognition of inabilities and limited aptitudes may preclude any attempted development beyond good work habits and attitudes that will enable the person with limitations to hold a job. The job objective is to provide employment—profitable, satisfactory, and offering reasonable permanency and security. An individual may be economically adjusted to the economic program if he is happily and successfully handling a job even though it may be only the placing of a bolt in the wheel of progress.

The logical approach to the problems of the deaf is through the avenue of the normal. The deaf are heir to all the perplexities that confront other people in their adjustments and have a legion of additional obstacles to overcome. They must live in a world of hearing people and find happiness in so doing. Responsibility for their adjustment weighs far more heavily on the school than does that of the ordinary child. Their opportunities for education are found in the residential school, the private school, the special day school, the day class, the school for all types of handicapped, and simply the school. There is a wide variance in opinions as to which type offers the most advantageous opportunities for the greatest development of the deaf. So many factors are involved, so many questionable claims are made, so much group antagonism prevails, that the young deaf child of today

stands a fair chance of being buffeted around much to the detriment of his preparation to adjust anywhere.

The speaker ventures to say that there is not one person in this audience who is connected with a residential school who would be unwilling to see the doors of that type school close tomorrow if he or she could know beyond question that every deaf child would be given equally desirable home environment, accepted in the community as its responsibility, and adequate provision be made for his education and industrial training—this adequate provision to be based on the capacities of the child, his needs for development and an adequately prepared teacher provided for his academic work, also a counselor or supervisor to aid in his adjustment and training in a trade alongside the average person. Could the attaché of the residential school convince the furthestmost idealist that he or she is so open-minded? On the other hand, if the teacher—trained in one of the most methodical teacher-training centers for the deaf—who has taught several years in a residential school, finds her way into a combination school where the deaf are taught under the same roof with other types of handicap, if that teacher finds advantages which promote better adjustment and better preparation for the deaf child, will the other groups become alert enough to investigate and open-minded enough to be unbiased in their conclusions? The socio-economic adjustment of the deaf, so dependent on education, will become increasingly difficult to effect unless the extremists are brought to their senses, so to speak. What would be your opinion of the advice that was given in the case of a 15-year-old girl with an 80-percent hearing loss who was attending school in a rural community wherein absolutely no provision was being made for her special needs, who purportedly had reached the fifth grade but was becoming completely lost, yet she was advised to stay in that school alongside the normal, study harder, and get some help at home? Can you predict social and economic adjustment for that young woman? Shall we always be faced with versus situations rather than the more desirable cooperative ones? By all means, let us educate every child in that surrounding which will offer the greatest possibilities for the development of his complete faculties, where he will have the greatest happiness.

Before he enters school the average deaf child's social relationship at home far more likely has been that of a coddled and overprotected child than the normal. If the focal point of adjustment for the normal child is that of the first grade when there is a break in the adjustment process between the school and home brought about by the introduction of the child to a school discipline and organization, may we not say that the deaf child at this focal point of his first year in school starts out with a severe shock to his emotional system because there is no way to make him understand why he is being deposited so unceremoniously amidst strangers? We know, however, that this deaf child adjusts to his new surroundings with remarkable dispatch. He soon learns that the school is a help and that he is being well cared for. Ordinarily he is happy and contented during his entire school life. Opportunity is afforded for him to develop socially desirable attitudes. He becomes one of the group. His guided play activities, his eating or sleeping habits bring social relationships that help adjust him to meet related situations.

The school must accept the responsibility for teaching many of the truths and developing many of the traits which the normal child gets from others. Necessarily this calls for an environment conducive to good behavior, well-ordered regularity in routine, suitable work and play, and wise teaching guidance. Situations are at hand to be used toward enabling children to know and get along with one another, to develop respect for each other's wants and abilities, to assist each other, to cooperate, to follow as well as lead. A wholesome play relationship usually exists. They are taught to like other children, to enjoy being with them, and to attempt to understand them and to please them. They learn that people are different, that they respond differently to different treatment, and they learn how to treat others to obtain desirable responses.

These accepted natural conditions are not all that are required. Those responsible should see that a succession of new situations from which he may derive pleasure in making new adjustments are created to keep the child plastic.

The school objective should be to prepare the child to find his proper place in society and to live a full, happy, successful life in his community. Whether or not this means the community from which he came is dependent upon its particular possibilities and desirability for the deaf individual. To function most effectively then the school needs to know the community, the home, and the child. This is not always easy and many persons spend years, in fact their whole school lives, adjusting and readjusting to home, to school, back to home and back to school without any close understanding or existent knowledge between the school and home or community.

In effecting a socio-economic adjustment of the deaf the educator is confronted with a variety of problems. Often the disease which caused deafness has affected the mentality of the child as well as his physical development. On the other hand he may have a perfectly normal physical development with the exception of his lack of hearing. His sense of vision, his sense of touch, his powers of observation may be well developed. Because he lacks language though and a system of communication, his mental development is retarded. He lacks speech or he may have imperfect speech. He may cover a wide range in the degree of hearing losses. All of these factors have to be given consideration in determining the needs of the deaf for educational development. In addition, one is confronted with the fact that a large percentage of the enrollees never progress academically beyond the fourth or fifth grade. They may learn to perform relatively simple, unskilled occupational or industrial tasks with occasional oversight and may be capable of earning a living under favorable conditions and under supervision but are incapable of progressing industrially beyond the common labor or apprentice levels in industrial pursuits.

They may acquire some advantageous social habits but are incapable of successful adjustment to changing social or industrial conditions independently of outside help. They show a lack in judgment, common sense, and planning capacity. They are likely to have an over-expressed ego. Frequently family relationships are liabilities rather than assets. Parents have not been educated to understand the aptitudes of their child, under which conditions it becomes the re-

sponsibility of the school to convince them of the particular aptitudes and inaptitudes of their deaf offspring.

Class groupings and school associations present their difficulties. There is the deaf child superior in intellect who has made rapid advancement. If he is grouped with the too big and the too mature, he is under a social and emotional strain. If the adventitious case is going through an adjustment period, he is a distinct problem. Often the other deaf make it hard for him. He doesn't understand them and they do not understand him. He needs guidance, and so do they, but of a different nature. There is the child so backward that about all that can be done for him is to keep him busy doing concrete things with materials. The problem child cannot be sent back home with as quick dispatch as formerly. His case must be studied and the school is expected to tackle the solution by studying him physically, psychologically, psychiatrically, and sociologically and to take such steps as may be necessary to bring about an adjustment instead of passing his case back to the home and community.

The future of the deaf child depends so extensively on the teacher and his school-home directors that it becomes increasingly important to accept for training or positions, selected persons with almost super-human qualities. Personalities should be even superior to those required of persons who deal with ordinary children. Certainly emotional stability, expressed and satisfied personalities are essential attributes of the teacher of the deaf. Properly trained, the teacher must know subject matter and methods, the techniques required for its conveyance, and at the same time she must be capable of making her approaches toward the objective of the ultimate adjustment of the entire child and adequately motivate and guide him in the development of his particular talents. In the case of the deaf, education is the largest single factor entering into his improvement and its ultimate goal is to fit him to become successful in his personal relations with others. Neglect of the education of the deaf in childhood is a great social handicap to the individual.

Socialization or development of personality is far more important for the deaf than for other people. Deafness is no excuse for trying to justify displeasing personalities. Some of the most attractive personalities the speaker has ever known she has found among the deaf. She further deposes that among the same type she has found the most displeasing of personalities.

In aiding the deaf to adjust socially through their training one must keep the principles before them: (1) That in general they should not expect treatment other than would be accorded the normal individual socially; (2) that their handicap is not one to justify attempts to arouse sympathy and sentimentalism; (3) that they cannot live segregated lives, hence they must learn how to establish social contacts with ordinary people, live and work with them, as well as recognize that they must give as well as take in their associations with their neighbors. This is not a small order to hand out to the deaf. Their beginning in life which has resulted in slower mental development tends to limit their capacity to understand and to participate in the experiences of their own chronological age groups. Brunschwig found the deaf group scored more maladjusted than the hearing in areas of general adjustment, social adjustment, school adjustment, and home

adjustment. She found the greatest difference to be in the social. She attributes this to their inferior means of communication and believes it is not possible to remove this difference through even the highest use of compensatory devices, either of instrumental character or of substitute nature. This lack of social adjustment results, she says, in emotional reaction. Social experiences in school, however, do carry over into independent social life that promotes happiness and satisfaction. Schools are meeting these needs more satisfactorily and the speaker believes that a more recent testing for social adjustment would indicate a decrease in this difference between the deaf and others.

To adjust economically the deaf must have equality of opportunity. This equality comes through (1) better preparation; (2) the alertness of the vocational teachers in keeping up with trades, employers, and employment conditions; (3) a school program that will bring the deaf into closer contact with industry—one that will avail itself of any opportunity to train cooperatively on the job with supervision from the school; (4) no crowding in certain types of jobs; (5) definite training for development of qualities that make for desirability—punctuality, promptness, accuracy, obedience, loyalty, persistency, dependability; (6) cooperation with rehabilitation services and State employment services; (7) watchfulness of legislation that might jeopardize the employment of the deaf; (8) a school guidance program that leads to the development of the special aptitudes of the individual, but one which also sees that he gets a basic preparation that will enable him to adjust both socially and economically to other situations. Although there are departments of vocational rehabilitation and job placement agencies, the speaker believes the school should have a representative to aid in the placement of its products in industry, to help keep them satisfied, to clarify their duties, and help them in their adjustments. With all the odds in favor of the hearing, the misplacement of a deaf person is abominable and most difficult to overcome.

Facilities for selling the abilities of the deaf worker should be provided. The employing public needs to be continuously enlightened to prevent discrimination. In a recent defense-job training chart issued by the United States Office of Education under the National Youth Administration grouping, were listed no less than 10 occupations in which the deaf might participate, but in all of them the academic requirements were higher than the majority of the deaf are qualified to fill, yet the types of jobs were those in which the deaf have functioned successfully. Whatever opportunity is presented to the deaf for training and establishment in the defense program should be grasped and used toward their firmer establishment in the scheme of security, both present and future.

The deaf themselves are doing a very good job of promoting their own welfare. They are studying today's problems and possible solutions. They are realizing that they are a part of the whole in employment situations and that segregation is not possible. The speaker recently attended a meeting of the deaf and in their deliberations they were in agreement on the inestimable value of speech and lip reading in their contact with employers and the public in general. Their national organizations are alert to their responsibilities to contend for their rights and privileges and to bring about a public under-

standing that will aid in their own adjustment, and the speaker ventures to believe that they are realizing that their greatest responsibilities lie in educating the public rather than in reforming their schools.

The speaker has made no effort to treat this subject of the socio-economic adjustment of the deaf scientifically. Proven studies of this nature as applied to the deaf are in their incipency. Mr. F. Richard Stilwell of the Federal Rehabilitation Service recently said their office figures showed 15,000,000 deaf and hard-of-hearing persons in the United States, most of whom are well adjusted. A recent social and economic survey of the graduates and ex-students of Gallaudet College showed splendid adjustments were being made by its former students and that their salary earnings covered a span from \$40 to \$600 a month. This is splendid and shows that the college is successfully functioning for the very, very small percent who are capable of taking advantage of its opportunities. But what of all the rest? Very few deaf persons receive even a high-school education. What of the large percentage that fall, academically, within the fourth of fifth grades to, not through, high school and those who do not reach even a fourth-grade level? The socio-economic adjustment of the numbers within these brackets needs our genuine concern. Indeed, potentially, every child, whatever his capacities may be, handicapped by any loss of hearing, is our responsibility to some degree and needs to be considered in our deliberations.

What tools have we today at our command that offer possibilities for better preparing the deaf to adjust to constantly changing conditions? The speaker would mention—

1. The accomplishments, theories, and educational materials of the public schools from which we may draw and which we may adapt to our own situations.

2. The experiences of our predecessors and ourselves in the special field of the education of the deaf.

3. Building materials that are making it possible to create surroundings that will be a definite factor in obtaining better results in our objectives. The acoustically treated classroom increases the efficiency of the teacher and certainly is more conducive to better results in speech and in the auricular.

4. The growing tendency to train teachers cooperatively with colleges and universities. This develops a consciousness of the deaf in the university and a broader concept in the teacher being trained.

5. Scientific progress in the development of hearing aids which may go so far as practically to revolutionize our processes.

6. Public interest is a tool. The growth of the education of the exceptional child in which the deaf are a group is creating general interest in those so handicapped. From this interest there will evolve a better understanding of our problems, a closer contact with schools for the normal which will lead to progress in our own ideas.

7. Tests and evaluation materials for the normal which may be adapted and applied to our own group to show us whether or not we are adequately using the facilities at hand and getting the optimum results.

8. Vocational rehabilitation, labor departments, welfare groups, health departments are at our disposal to be used toward advancement of knowledge and understanding of the deaf.

9. Deaf persons enrolled in regular college courses, be they extension or class, are tools that may go far in establishing public opinion advantageous to the group. All the first-hand knowledge the public can obtain reliably aids definitely within and without our ranks.

10. Nursery schools and continuation schools to further diminish natural retardations from deafness.

11. Federal aid. Let us grasp it, and do all in our power to substantiate our claims for the needs of the deaf and their possibilities by placing information in the hands of the Government, yet keep an open ear to their interpretations and policies.

Like all education, we are being called upon to prove our worth. Missouri is the "show-me" State. What could be more in keeping with the problems that face us today in our efforts to meet the conditions of the future than to be holding this convention in a State whose very sobriquet thus fittingly describes the times?

We cannot and would not rest on the laurels of our predecessors. We cannot satisfy by simply pointing to the successful deaf of today. The taxpayer questions the cost; some people question the wisdom; the deaf themselves and their own instructors question the methods; the interested public and parents question the place; the educational systems question the background of the teachers; health departments question the physical provisions; welfare departments question our advice, our policies, our decisions; organizations question the dividing line between deafness and hard-of-hearingness and the "how" of solving their problems; Federal agencies question the advisability of any segregative functioning of any handicapped group; and now the defense program questions the availability of funds, and we are questioning ourselves. We, too, are in a period of adjustment. May we be guided in our thinkings and actions toward creating situations that will bring about public responses which will terminate in achieving the greatest good for each individual in the handicapped group which we are conscientiously and perhaps even stubbornly—as stubbornly as the Missouri mule—attempting to serve.

Mr. RANEY. Mrs. Poore, the executive committee and the program committee of this convention, as well as the members of the convention, are deeply grateful to you for this very fine paper, and I am sure that we all realize that that is one of the big problems that not only confronts us while the children are in school but constantly after they leave school.

I am now going to turn this meeting back to the gentleman from the extreme South, my friend, Dr. Settles.

Dr. SETTLES. Mr. Driggs, the secretary, has an announcement to make.

Mr. DRIGGS. May I step out of the office of secretary to be just from Idaho for a moment? You have been sold Florida and Texas and California, but I want to propose to you a long-range program which seems to be popular nowadays. Out in Sun Valley we have something that is unique in world geography. The Union Pacific has streamlined all of the mountains and the Sawtooth Ranges in Sun Valley. They

have spent millions of dollars for your comfort and entertainment, and Mr. Pat Rogers, of Sun Valley, and Mr. Burton W. Driggs, of Gooding, and the institution hope to entertain you at Sun Valley and Gooding in 1945. And, if you come to Sun Valley in 1945, your life's span will be extended 100 years.

I want you to know that we will whisk you 10,000 feet on ski lifts into the great horizons, the magnificent Sawtooth Ranges, snow-capped for your own special pleasure. We will take you into the primitive areas on horseback where you women won't see a man for 3 days. We will ice-skate you in the middle of the summer, under floodlights and to music accompaniment. We will gamble away all of your money. We will golf you. We will do everything in the power of the great Union Pacific to make your stay most comfortable and most delightful, and we will air condition the whole State of Idaho for your united pleasure. Do save your money so that you can afford it. I thank you. [Applause.]

Dr. SETTLES. Are there any other announcements? Mr. Fusfeld has asked me to request that all section leaders bring to him immediately any papers that were read in the section meetings.

Is there any further business or unfinished business to come before the convention?

At this time I want to thank the membership of the convention for the honor you have given me by electing me to the office of president. I assure you I will give all of the needed time and attention to this office, and I shall rely rather heavily upon the officers and upon the membership and the classroom teachers for help and suggestions.

I want to thank the section leaders for the splendid programs that they prepared for this convention. They certainly did work well and hard. I also wish to thank the members of the local committees on arrangements, including the personnel attending to preparation of the exhibits.

I will not take time to answer this most excellent invitation from Sun Valley by overshadowing it with what we have in Florida. I think I have already told you, we certainly want to see each one of you in Florida in 1943.

I hereby declare the thirty-second meeting of the convention of American Instructors of the Deaf adjourned.

(Adjournment of the thirty-second meeting of the convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, at 12:15 p. m., Friday, June 27, 1941.)

NECROLOGY

- Isaac Allison:** Graduate of Bliss Electrical School and of the George Washington University. Became associated with scientific department of Gallaudet College in 1900; served as instructor and professor there for 40 years. At time of his death he was professor of both natural science and electrical engineering. Died February 12, 1940.
- Nell Arbaugh:** Practically her entire adult career was spent in teaching the deaf. She taught for 14 years at the Idaho School; taught the deaf in the public school at Cleveland, Ohio, retiring only a few years ago due to ill health. Died November 28, 1939.
- Clarence F. Belk:** Graduate of Stout Institute, Menomonie, Wis. A public school teacher in Texas; became supervisor of trades at the Alabama School, serving there for 12 years. New building program at Talladega plant was under his supervision. Died April 10, 1941.
- Ota Bell Crawford Blankenship:** Graduate of the Nebraska School in 1891; supervisor of small girls and later substitute teacher; attended Gallaudet College 2 years, returning to Nebraska as regular teacher in 1901, a position she held until the time of her death. Died March 21, 1941.
- Frank Lee Burdette:** Graduate of Marshall College, Peabody Normal College (L. I.), the University of Nashville (B. A.), and graduate student, University of Chicago. Principal Clarkesville (Tenn.) High School, superintendent of Weston (W. Va.) public schools, later of the Clarksburg (W. Va.) public schools, and superintendent of the West Virginia Schools for the Deaf and the Blind, 1917-20. Also member of the West Virginia State Board of Education, 1915-20. Died February 26, 1942, at age of 75.
- Nannie Carpenter:** Became supervisor at the Florida School during the presidency of Dr. A. H. Walker. Served for 19 years as housemother and counselor of the intermediate deaf boys. Died April 22, 1940.
- Alfa Robertson Casey:** Graduate of the Indiana School. Taught at Newport News, Va., Overlea, Md., and Romney, W. Va. She was a successful teacher at the West Virginia School, having been on the staff a dozen years when she retired in 1935. Died April 25, 1941, at 86 years of age.
- Mary Corwin:** At time of her retirement, had been teacher of art in the Indiana School for 35 years. Died at the age of 87, March 1, 1942.
- Samuel Gaston Davidson:** Graduate of the Mount Airy, Philadelphia, School, and of Gallaudet College. Prominently connected with Mount Airy School where he revolutionized the method of teaching English; editor and publisher of the Educator; associate editor of the Association Review. Died during the summer of 1940.
- Parley DeBerry:** Taught in public schools of West Virginia several years; principal of Terra Alta schools; appointed superintendent of West Virginia Schools for the deaf and blind in 1914, a stranger to the profession; quickly familiarized himself with the deaf; removed, but reappointed in 1923, serving until 1933 when he retired. Died February 14, 1941.
- Richmond Smoot Dobyns:** Twice superintendent of the Mississippi School, 1914-18 and 1936-40. His father was superintendent before him, resigning in 1914, at which time the son succeeded him. His administrations were progressive ones. Died May 17, 1940.
- Fern Hudson Drake:** For many years a successful teacher at the Arkansas, Iowa, and Texas Schools. Retired a few years ago at the time of her marriage. Died during the summer of 1940.
- Sister M. Emmanuel:** Served for 22 years as teacher at DePaul Institute, Chicago. Died March 23, 1940.
- Edith Fitzgerald:** Graduate of the Illinois School and of Gallaudet College. Taught in the Wisconsin, Louisiana, Virginia, North Carolina, Georgia, and Texas Schools; taught summer classes at Columbia University, Milwaukee Normal, and Ypsilanti (Michigan) State Normal; originator of the straight language system which is now used by many of the schools for the deaf. Died June 25, 1940.

- Mary Dickinson Fosdick: Graduate of the Kentucky School. Served on the faculty at Danville for 27 years. Died May 5, 1941.
- Samuel M. Freeman: Graduate of the Ohio School and of Gallaudet College. In 1878 he was appointed teacher at the Georgia School, which position he held for 38 years. He retired in 1916 and ministered to the spiritual needs of the Methodist deaf at St. Mark's Methodist Episcopal Church, Atlanta. Died January 9, 1940.
- Max A. Goldstein: Graduate Missouri Medical College; studied in Germany, Austria, and England. Keen student of otology, interested in utilizing the residual hearing of deaf children. Founder of Central Institute for the Deaf, St. Louis, where he became world famous as an educator of the deaf. Doctor, professor, author, major, United States Army, and holder of many high offices in many prominent organizations. Died July 27, 1941.
- Augustus B. Greener: A graduate of the Ohio School and for 3 years a student at Gallaudet College. Appointed a teacher at the Ohio School and served with honor for 40 years under seven different superintendents; associate editor of the Ohio Chronicle. Died January 16, 1940.
- James Coffee Harris: In 1876 he founded a private school in Cedartown, Ga.; Principal of Marietta (Ga.) School; superintendent of public schools at Cedartown; superintendent of Rome (Ga.) schools. Became superintendent of the Georgia School in 1916 and remained there until his retirement from active service in 1936. Died June 23, 1940.
- Phillip J. Hasenstab: A pupil of the Indiana School and later a graduate of Gallaudet College, B. A., M. A., and honorary doctor of divinity. Became instructor in the Illinois School for a time. In 1893 he became resident pastor to the deaf of Chicago in the Methodist Church, being the first deaf man ordained in the history of Methodism. After almost half a century devoted service in the ministry, he died December 28, 1941, at the age of 80.
- Hermine M. Haupt: Miss Haupt was for many years connected with the Los Angeles Day School. Died September 22, 1940.
- Maude Henning: Taught in the West Virginia School for a number of years, and then began her services at the Maryland School in 1913, remaining there as a teacher until ill health forced her retirement in 1940. Died May 22, 1940.
- James W. Howson: A graduate of the California School and of the University of California. Specialized in chemical analytic work in San Francisco. Became a member of the faculty of the California School in 1900, retiring in 1938. Died January 10, 1941.
- Anna B. Jameson: Miss Jameson was a teacher in the academic department of the Missouri School from 1902 until 1940, at which time ill health forced her retirement. Died September 19, 1940.
- Effie Johnson: She had been a teacher since the age of 17 at the Illinois School. Prior to joining the faculty there, she was employed in the Jacksonville post office. Died May 30, 1940.
- Fannie Kimball: Graduate of the Maine School and of Gallaudet College. Her connection with the Maine School as a teacher extended over a period of 32 years. Died December 8, 1940.
- Sarah Jane LaRue: Became connected with the Virginia School in 1898 and was senior member of the faculty at the time of her death. Died January 9, 1941.
- Charles H. Loucks: Graduated from the South Dakota School and attended the University of Minnesota. Prior to teaching, he was passenger coach inspector and repairman for Milwaukee Railroad. In 1925 he became manual training instructor at the South Dakota School, a position he held until the time of his death. Died June 3, 1941.
- Maxwell Nathan Marcossion: Graduate of the Kentucky School and of Gallaudet College. Taught in the North Dakota School before going to Kentucky where he taught from 1898 to 1938. Ill health forced his retirement. Died February 11, 1940.
- Mary Louise Meigs: She taught at the Rochester School for over 38 years. She helped pupils to understand the intricacies of Latin and their success in passing the New York State Regents examination in this subject was due to her skill as a teacher. Died April 24, 1941.
- Vera L. Montville: A teacher at the Clarke School. She also served as coordinator in the teachers education department, as librarian and curator of the museum. Died May 30, 1940.

- Lucile Marsh Moore: A graduate of DePauw University; received her training at the Clarke School for the Deaf in Northampton, Mass. She was supervising teacher at the Florida School for 28 years. Died September 13, 1940.
- Edith M. Nelson: Graduate of Gallaudet College, B. A., 1914, M. A., 1915. Became instructor successively in the St. John (New Brunswick), Florida, and Kendall Schools. For the next 23 years she was a member of the faculty of Gallaudet College, serving as professor of languages, business practice, and library science. At the time of her death, April 20, 1942, she was one of the convention directors.
- Francis H. E. O'Donnell: Studied at the University of Edinburgh, Scotland; came here from England in 1886 where he studied and later taught the technique of teaching the deaf in London and Edinburgh. Became supervisor of boys at the California School; later on a teacher there for many years. Died February 6, 1940.
- Alvin E. Pope: B. A., Nebraska University; M. A., Gallaudet College; doctor's degree, Rutgers University; started his career as a teacher at the Nebraska School. Directed a survey of the schools for the deaf and blind in New York City in 1907. One of country's leading educators of the deaf; became superintendent of the New Jersey School in 1917; much research and experimental study were carried on there under his direction, especially in the technique of teaching reading and the teaching of speech. He developed the New Jersey School into one of the best in the country. He served as president of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf and was a member of the executive committee of the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf. Died March 3, 1940.
- Laura Adelaide Porter: A graduate of Williams Memorial Institute in New London, Conn.; took special training to teach the deaf at the Mystic School. She taught in the New London (Conn.) evening schools, the Mystic (Conn.), North Carolina, Malone (N. Y.), Rhode Island, and the American (Conn.) Schools for the Deaf. Ill health forced her retirement after long, useful years. Died December 29, 1939.
- Effie J. Race: Miss Race was for a number of years employed as domestic science teacher at the Illinois School. She retired about 15 years ago. Died February 12, 1941.
- Myrtle Rea: head teacher of the deaf oral department of the Mitchell School in Chicago, Ill., passed away October 31, 1941.
- Marguerite Scanlon: Began as a teacher in the schools of Hampshire County, W. Va. She began to lose her hearing, so became connected with the West Virginia School in 1904, remaining there until 1934. Died May 1, 1940.
- Wirt A. Scott: A graduate of the University of Mississippi and of the first normal class in the history of Gallaudet College. Taught in the Texas School until going to Oklahoma as principal. In 1918 he became superintendent of the Mississippi School, retiring in 1930. Died October 19, 1941.
- J. Lyman Steed: Graduate of Westminster College, Warrensburg (Mo.) Normal School, and of normal department of Gallaudet. Served as principal of Jefferson City (Mo.) schools; principal of the Maryland School for Colored Deaf and Blind; principal of Kendall School, Washington, D. C. Principal and later assistant superintendent of the Mount Airy (Pa.) School. Became superintendent of the Oregon School in 1926 and held that position up to the time of his death. Died September 4, 1941.
- Harriet Connor Stevens: Attended Hearn Academy and Cherokee Wesleyan Institute in Georgia, and was graduated from Wesleyan College, Macon, Ga.; graduate study at the University of Chicago. Studied music and short-story writing. Member of the teaching staff of the Georgia School for 27 years, until her retirement in 1939. She died in 1941 at the age of 72.
- James M. Steward: A member of the staff of the Ohio School for 35 years, from 1895 to 1930, at which time he retired. Died September 8, 1941.
- Albert A. Stewart: Superintendent of the Kansas School at two different occasions, and superintendent of the Oklahoma School. Retired from the profession several years ago. Died August 6, 1941.
- Zacharias Tadema: Mr. Tadema was employed at the Florida School in the capacity of landscaper and botanist, several of the pupils working under him. Died June 13, 1940.
- Florence Carter Tibbetts: A teacher at the Mount Airy (Pa.) School, the North Carolina, Malone (N. Y.), and the Maine Schools. She received her training at the Clarke School in Northampton, Mass. Died May 19, 1940.

Anna Barry Trundle: Daughter of William R. Barry, former president of the board of visitors of the Maryland School. Enrolled among first pupils when Maryland School was established, 1868. Taught in the Maryland School from 1876 to 1897. Died February 21, 1941.

Carrie Stegall Weakley: She was a faithful teacher at the Texas School for over a quarter of a century. Retired in 1934. Died September 2, 1940.

Ellen G. Williams: Mrs. Williams was a teacher at the Central New York School for the Deaf since 1917. Died August 31, 1941.

Martha McClary Wood: A teacher in the Iowa School before going to Alabama in 1931. She taught there up to the time of her death. Died May 25, 1940.

Ella Artz Zell: She was for 18 years a teacher at the Ohio School. She retired in 1904, being succeeded by her daughter. Died February 27, 1941.

W. T. GRIFFING, *Chairman,*

E. G. PETERSON,

ROY G. PARKS,

IRVING S. FUSFELD,

EVALINE DUNNEN,

Necrology Committee.

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